## Old Provencal

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# AN OUTLINE <br> OF THE <br> PHONOLOGY AND MORPHOLOGY <br> of <br> <br> OLD PROVENCAL 

 <br> <br> OLD PROVENCAL}

BY
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## PREFACE.

THIS book, which is intended as a guide to students of
Romance Philology, represents the result of desultory labors extending through a period of twenty years. My first introduction to the scientific pursuit of Provençal linguistics was a course given by Paul Meyer at the Ecole des Chartes in the winter of $1884-85$. Since then I have been collecting material both from my own examination of texts and from the works of those philologists who have dealt with the subject. Besides the large Grammars of the Romance Languages by Diez and by Meyer-Lübke, I have utilized $H$. Suchier's Die französische und provenzalische Sprache (in Gröber's Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, I, 561), the Introduzione grammaticale in V. Crescini's Manualetto provenzale, the Abriss der Formenlehre in C. Appel's Provenzalische Chrestomathie, and many special treatises to which reference will be made in the appropriate places. Conscious of many imperfections in my work, I shall be grateful for corrections.

I have confined myself to the old literary language, believing that to be of the greatest importance to a student of Romance Philology or of Comparative Literature, and fearing lest an enumeration of modern forms, in addition to the ancient, might prove too bewildering. I should add that neither my own knowledge nor the material at my disposal is adequate to a satisfactory presentation of the living idioms
of southern France. These dialects have, however, been investigated for the light they throw on the geographical distribution of phonetic variations; my chief source of information has been F. Mistral's monumental Dictionnaire provençal-français. Catalan and Franco-Provençal have been considered only incidentally. I have not dealt with wordformation, because one of my students is preparing a treatise on that subject.

Readers desiring a brief description of Provençal literature are referred to H. Suchier and A. Birch-Hirschfeld, Geschichte der französischen Literatur, pp. 56-96; A. Stimming, in Gröber's Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, II, ii, pp. 1-69; and A. Restori, Letteratura provenzale. For a more extended account of the poets they should consult Die Poesie der Troubadours and the Leben und Werke der Troubadours by F. Diez; and The Troubadours at Home by J. H. Smith. The poetic ideals are discussed by G. Paris in Romania, XII, pp. $5^{16-34 ; ~ a n d ~ w i t h ~ g r e a t ~ f u l n e s s ~ b y ~ L . ~ F . ~ M o t t ~ i n ~ T h e ~}$ System of Courtly Love. The beginnings of the literature are treated by A. Jeanroy in his Origines de la poésie lyrique en France au moyen âge, reviewed by G. Paris in a series of important articles in the Journal des Savants (November and December, 1891, and March and July, 1892) reprinted separately in 1892 under the same title as Jeanroy's book. Contributions by A. Restori to several volumes of the Rivista musicale italiana deal with Provençal music; some tunes in modern notation are to be found in J. H. Smith's Troubadours at Home, and in the Archiv für das Studium der neueren Sprachen, CX (New Series X), 110 (E. Bohn). Aside from the editions of individual poets, the best collections of verses are those of C. Appel, Provenzalische Chrestomathie; V. Crescini, Manualetto provenzale; and K. Bartsch, Chresto-
mathie provençale. Earlier and larger anthologies are M. Raynouard's Choix des poésies originales des troubadours, and C. A. F. Mahn's Werke der Troubadours and Gedichte der Troubadours. The only dictionary of importance for the old language is the Lexique roman (six volumes) of M. Raynouard, augmented by the Supplement-Wörterbuch of E. Levy (now appearing in instalments). The poetic language of the present day can be studied to advantage in E. Koschwitz's Grammaire historique de la langue des Félibres.
C. H. GRANDGENT.

Cambridge, Mass., November, 1904.

## ABBREVIATIONS AND TECHNICAL TERMS.

Abl.: ablative.
Acc.: accusative.
Cl.L. : Classic Latin.

Cond.: conditional.
Cons. : consonant.
Einf.: W. Meyer-Lübke, Einfüh-rung in das Studium der romanischen Sprachwissenschaft, 190I.
F.: feminine.

Fr.: French.
Free (of vowels): not in position.
Fut.: future.
Gram.: W. Meyer-Luibke, Grammaire des langues romanes, 3 vols., 1890-1900.
Grundriss: G. Gröber, Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, 2 vols., 1888-1902.
Imp.: imperfect.
Imper. : imperative.
Intertonic (of vowels): following the secondary and preceding the primary accent.
Intervocalic (of consonants) : standing between two vowels.
It.: Italian.
Körting: G. Körting, Lateinischromanisches Wörterbuch, 2d ed., 1901.

Lat.: Latin.
Levy: E. Levy, Provenzalisches Supplement-Wörterbuch, 1894-.

Ltblt.: Literaturblatt fiur germanische und romanische Philologie, monthly, Leipzig.
M.: masculine.

Nom.: nominative.
Obj.: objective (case).
Part.: participle.
Perf.: perfect.
Pers.: person.
Phon. : P. Marchot, Petite phonéti-
que du français prélittéraire, 1901 .
P1.: plural.
Pr.: Provençal.
Pres.: present.
Pret.: preterit.
Raynouard: M. Raynouard, Lexique roman, 6 vols., 1836-44.
Rom.: Romania, quarterly, Paris.
Sg.: singular.
V.L.: Vulgar Latin.

Voc.: H. Schuchardt, Vocalismus des Vulgärlateins, 3 vols., 1866-68.
Voiced (of consonants): sonant, pronounced with vibration of the glottis.
Voiceless (of consonants): surd, pronounced without glottal vibration.
Vow.: vowel.
Zs.: Zeitschrift fiir romanische Philologie, 4 to 6 nos. a year, Halle.

## SIGNS AND PHONETIC SYMBOLS.

N. B. - Phonetic characters not entered in this list are to be pronounced as in Italian. Whenever it is essential to distinguish spelling from pronunciation, italic type is used for the former, Roman for the latter.

- (under a vowel) : close quality. ' (after a consonant) : palatal pro-
${ }_{2}$ (under a vowel): open quality.
- (over a vowel): long quantity.
- (over a vowel): short quantity.
- (under a letter) : semivowel, not syllabic.
' (over a letter) : stress.
a: French $a$ in pate.
ą: French $a$ in patte.
$\beta$ : bilabial $v$, as in Spanish.
c: see $k$.
$c^{\prime}$ : palatal $k$, as in English key.
ס: English th in this.
e: French é in thé.
$e$ e: French ề in fête.
g: English $g$ in $g o$.
$\mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ : palatal g, as in English geese.
h: English $h$ in hat.
$\mathbf{i}:$ French $i$ in $s i$.
$\dot{i}$ : English $\check{z}$ in pit.
$\mathbf{k}$ : English $k$ in maker.
$k^{\prime}$ : see $c^{\prime}$.
$l^{\prime}$ : palatal $l$, as in Italian figlio.
nunciation.
[found.
* (before a word) : conjectural, not
$>$ (between words or letters) : de-
rivation, the source standing at
the open end.
+ : followed by.
$\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ : palatal $n$, as in Italian ogni.
$\eta$ : English $n g$ in sing.
o: German $\bar{o}$, as in sohn.
©: German $\varnothing$, as in sonne.
$r^{\prime}$ : palatal $r$.
š: English sh in ship.
p: English th in thin.
$\mathrm{u}:$ German $\bar{u}$, as in gut.
$\underline{u}:$ German $\check{u}$, as in butter.
ii: French $u$ in pur.
w: English $w$ in woo.
$\chi$ : German ch in ach.
y: English $y$ in $y e$.
z: English $z$ in crazy.
ž: French $j$ in jour.



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## AN OUTLINE OF THE PHONOLOGY AND MORPHOLOGY OF OLD PROVENÇAL.

## I. INTRODUCTION.

I. The language here studied is, in the main, that used by the poets of Southern France during the 12 th and $13^{\text {th }}$ centuries. The few works that we have earlier than the 12 th century must, of course, be utilized for such information as they afford concerning the process of linguistic change; and lacking words or forms must occasionally be sought in writings later than the 13 th. Prose literature, moreover, should not be neglected, as it greatly enlarges our vocabulary and throws much light on local divergences. The modern dialects need be cited only to determine the geographical distribution of variations.
2. The extent of the Provençal territory is sufficiently indicated by the map on p. viii. The upper black line separates Provençal on the northwest and north from French, on the northeast from Franco-Provençal; on the east are the Gallo-Italic dialects. The lower black line divides Provençal on the southwest from Basque, on the south from Spanish, on the southeast from Catalan. The boundary line between French and Provençal must be determined somewhat arbitrarily, as there is no distinct natural division; the several linguistic characteristics of each idiom do not end at the
same point, and thus one language gradually shades into the other. The line shown on the map is based on the development of free accented Latin a, which remains a in Provençal, but is changed to $\mathbf{e}$ in French. The limits of other phonetic phenomena may be found in Suchier's maps at the back of Vol. I of Gröber's Grundriss. There may be seen also a large map showing the place of Provençal among the Romance languages. Consult, furthermore, P. Meyer in Romania, XXIV, 529.
3. The Spanish and Gallo-Italic frontiers are more clearly defined, and Basque is entirely distinct. Franco-Provençal and Catalan, on the other hand, are closely related to Provençal and not always easy to divide from it. Catalan, in fact, is often classed as a Provençal dialect; but it is sufficiently different to be studied separately. Franco-Provençal, rated by some philologists as an independent language, has certain characteristics of Provençal and certain features of French, but more of the latter; in some respects it is at variance with both. The Gascon, or southwest, dialects of Provençal differ in many ways from any of the others and present not a few similarities to Spanish ${ }^{1}$; they will, however, be included in our study.
4. The Provençal domain embraces, then, the following old provinces: Provence, Languedoc, Foix, part of Béarn, Gascony, Guyenne, Limousin, most of Marche, Auvergne, the southwestern half of Lyonnais and the southern half of Dauphiné. The native speech in this region varies considerably from place to place, and the local dialects are, for convenience, roughly grouped under the names of the provinces; it should be remembered, however, that the political

[^0]and the linguistic boundaries rarely coincide. For some of the principal dialect differences, see $\S \S 8$ and $10-13$.
5. The old poets frequently called their language lemosi; and, in fact, the foundation of their literary idiom is the speech of the province of Limousin and the adjacent territory on the north, west, and southwest. ${ }^{1}$ The supremacy of this dialect group is apparently due to the fact that it was generally used for composition earlier than any of the others: popular song, in all probability, had its home in the borderland of Marche ${ }^{2}$; religious literature in the vulgar tongue developed in the monasteries of this region; the artistic lyric was cultivated, we know, at the court of Ventadour, and it must have found favor at others. Furthermore, many of the leading troubadours belonged by birth or residence to the Limousin district.
6. The troubadours' verses, as we have them, seldom represent any one dialect in its purity. The poet himself was doubtless influenced both by literary tradition and by his particular local usage, as well as by considerations of rhyme and metre. Moreover, his work, before reaching us, passed through the hands of various intermediaries, who left upon it traces of their own pronunciation. It should be said, also, that the Limousin was not a single dialect, but a group of more or less divergent types of speech. For these reasons we must not expect to find in Provençal a uniform linguistic standard.
7. Neither was there a generally accepted system of crthography. When the vulgar tongue was first written, the

[^1]Roman letters were used with approximately the same values that they had in Latin, as it was then pronounced. As the Provençal sounds changed, there was a conflict between the spellings first established and new notations based on contemporary speech. Furthermore, many Provençal vowels and consonants had no equivalents in Latin; for these we find a great variety of representations. The signs are very often ambiguous: for instance, $c$ before $e$ or $i$ (as in cen, cinc) generally stands in the first texts for ts, in the more recent ones for s , the pronunciation having changed; $z$ between vowels in early times usually means dz (plazer), but later z (roza); $i$ between vowels (maiór) indicates either y or dž (English $j$ ), according to the dialect; a $g$ may signify "hard" g (gerra), dž ("soft" g: ges), or tš (English ch: mieg). It is probable that for a couple of centuries diphthongs were oftenest written as simple vowels.
8. Some features of the mediæval pronunciation are still obscure. The close o was transformed, either during or soon after the literary epoch, into $u$ (the sound of French ou); hence, when we meet in a late text such a word as flor, we cannot be certain whether it is to be sounded flor or flur. We do not know at what time Latin $\bar{u}$ in southern France took the sound $\ddot{u}$ (French $u$ ): some suppose that it was during or shortly before the literary period; if this be true, the letter $u$ (as in $t u$, mur) may represent in some texts $u$, in others $\ddot{u}$. In diphthongs and triphthongs whose first element is written $u$ (cuer, fuolha, nueu, buou), this letter came to be pronounced in most of the dialects like French $u$ in huit, while in others it retained the sound of French ou in oui; we cannot tell exactly when or where, in ancient times, this development occurred. In the diphthongs ue, uo (luec, fuoc), opinions disagree as to which vowel originally bore the
stress; subsequent changes seem to indicate that in the 12 th and 13 th centuries the practice varied in the different dialects. Old Provençal must have had in some words a peculiar type of $r$, which was sufficiently palatal in its articulation to call for an i-glide before it (esclairar); we do not know precisely how it was formed; in most regions it probably was assimilated to the more usual $r$ as early as the 12 th century. The š and $\check{z}$ (palatal $s$ and $z$ ) apparently ranged, in the several dialects, between the sounds of French ch and $j$ on the one hand, and those of German ch (in ich) and $j$ (in $j a)$ on the other; the former types were largely assimilated, doubtless by the 13 th century, to s and z (pois, maisó), the latter were not (poih, maio).
9. The following table comprises the Old Provençal sounds with their usual spellings, the latter being arranged, as nearly as may be, in the order of their frequency. Diphthongs and triphthongs are included in the vowel list, compound consonants in the consonant table. For an explanation of the phonetic symbols, see p. vii. The variant pronunciations are discussed in § 8.

## VOWELS.

| SOUND. |  |  | EXAMPLES |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. | $a$ | pan |  |
| a | $a$ | car |  |
| ai | $a i, a y$ | paire, cays |  |
| au | $a u$ | autre |  |
| e | $e$ | pena |  |
| e | $e$ | cel |  |
| ei | ei, ey | vei, veyre |  |
| ei | $e i, e y$ | seis, teysser |  |
| eu | eu | beure |  |
| eu | ev | breu |  |
| i | $i, y$ | amic, ydola |  |

SOUND. SPELLINGS.

## EXAMPLES.

| ie | $i e, e$ | quier, velh |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| iẹi | iei, iey, ei | ieis, lieys, leit |
| ieu | ieu, eu | mieu, deus |
| iu | iu | estiu |
| O (or u ) | o, u | corre, sun |
| ¢ | 0 | cors |
| oi | oi, oy | conoisser, oyre |
| qi | oi, oy | pois, poyssán |
| ou | ou | dous |
| Qu | ou | mou |
| $\underline{u}$ : see o, ui |  |  |
| ü (or up) | u | mut |
| uę, üę | ue, o? | cuec, olh? |
| uęi, uięi | uei, uey, oi? | cueissa, pueyssas, oit? |
| uęu, üẹu | ueu, ou? | nueu, bou? |
| ii | $u i, u y$ | cuit, duy |
| uo, üo | uo,o | gruoc, folha |
| uọi, üọ | uoi, oi | puoi, noit |
| uọu, üọu | uou, ou | pluou, ou |

## CONSONANTS.

SOUND.
SPELLINGS.
EXAMPLES.

| b | $b, b b$ | bel, abbat |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| d | d | don |
| dz | z, $c$ | plazer, dicén |
| dž | $i, g, \operatorname{tg}, \mathrm{gg}, \mathrm{ti}, \operatorname{tg} \mathbf{i}, \mathrm{ih}$ | ioc, gen, paratge, viagge, coratie, Iotgiar, puihar |
| $\delta$ | $d$ | veder |
| f | $f, p h$ | fer, phizica |
| $g$ | $g, g u$ | gras, guan, guerra |
| h (Gascon) | $h, f$ ? | ham, fe? ${ }^{1}$ |
| k | c, $q u, k, g$ | cais, quar, quer, ki, longs² |
| 1 | $l, l l$ | leu, belleza |

[^2]SOUND.
SPELLINGS.
EXAMPLES.

| 1 | $\begin{aligned} & l h, i l l, i l h, l l, l, i l, y l, \\ & y l l, l_{i} \end{aligned}$ | fuelha, meillor, failha, vellar, viel, voil, fiyl, fayllentia, filia |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| m | $m, \mathrm{~mm}$ | mes, commanda |
| n | $n, n n$ | nas, annat |
| $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ | $n h, g n$, inh, ign, ing, innh, ingn, ngn, $n n, n, i n, n g, y n h$, $n i, n y, n y h$ | cenher, plagner, poinh, seignor, soing, poinnher, fraingner, ongnimen, vinna, franén, soin, sengor, poynh, lenia, senyoria, senyhor |
| ŋ | $n$ | lonc |
| p | $p, p p, b$ | prop, apparer, obs ${ }^{1}$ |
| r | $r$ | rire |
| $\mathrm{r}^{\prime}$ | $r$ | cuer |
| rr | $r$ r | terra ${ }^{2}$ |
| s | $s, s s, c, f, x$ | sap, fassa, cenat, ¢a, locx |
| š | $s s, s, s h, h, h s$ | faissa, cais, pueysh, Foih, faihs |
| t | $t, t, d$ | tot, attenir, nud ${ }^{1}$ |
| ts | $c, z, t z, f, g z, c z, t i$ | cel, faz, parlatz, fo, fagz, czo, fayllentia $^{8}$ |
| tš | $c h, g, i c h, i g, h, g z$ | chan, plag, ueich, faig, lah, gaugz ${ }^{4}$ |
| v | $u$ (printed $v$ ) | ven |
| y | i, $y$ | gabia, preyar |
| $z$ | $s, z, f$ | pausa, roza, riçia (<ridèbat) |
| ž | $s, z, i$ | raso, poizo, maio |

10. The Gascon group presents certain striking divergences from the other dialects: (1) it shows a b corresponding to Provençal v , as in $b e=v e<v e ̆ n i t, ~ a b e t z=a v e t z<h a$ bétis; (2) it substitutes r for 1 between vowels, as in bera $=$ bela<bĕlla; (3) it changes initial f to h , as in $h e=f e<$ fidem. Other Gascon peculiarities are less ancient, less general, or less important.

[^3]11. Some distinctions may be pointed out between the speech of the north and that of the south:-
(1) Latin ca and ga, either at the beginning of a word or after a consonant, became respectively tša and dža in the northern dialects ${ }^{1}$, and remained unchanged in the southern: canto $>$ chan can, lŏnga > lonia longa.
(2) Latin ct and gd became it and id in most of the north and in the southwest ${ }^{1}$, tš and dž in most of the south and in the northwest ${ }^{2}$ : factum $>$ fait fach, frig( $(i) d a>$ freida freia. Nct became int, nt, $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$, ntš in different regions: sanctum $>$ saint sant sanh sanch. Cs (Latin $x$ ) had various local de-velopments-is, itš, tš-somewhat similar to those of ct: exīre $>$ eissir eichir ichir.
(3) Latin d between vowels disappeared in some spots in the north and northeast ${ }^{1}$, and became $z$ nearly everywhere else: audīre > auir auzir.
(4) Latin 11 became $l^{\prime}$ in some parts of the south ${ }^{2}$, and usually 1 in other regions: bĕlla $>$ belha bela.
(5) Provençal final ns remains in the southeast and east, and is elsewhere generally reduced to s : bŏnus $>$ bons bos. Provençal final n also falls in a large region, but its history is more intricate; the poets use indifferently forms with and without $n$ : bĕne $>$ ben be.
12. Several Latin consonants, when combined with a following e or $\underset{\sim}{i}$, give results that are widely different in various localities, but the geographical distribution of the respective forms is complicated and not always clear: pŏdium $>$ puech poi; basiare>baisar basar baiiar baiar; bassiare>baissar baichar bachar; potiōnem > poizon pozon poio. The same thing

[^4][^5]may be said of intervocalic y (Latin $j$ ): major $>$ mager maier. Also of intervocalic c, sc, g, gg, followed by e or i: placēre > plazer plaizer plager, nascere > naisser nasser naicher nacher, lēgem $>$ lei leg, üngere $>$ onher onger.
13. In the development of unstressed vowels there are very numerous local variations, which will be discussed later. Even among accented vowels there are some divergences:-
(i) Provençal ą, e, o before nasals become a, e, o in some dialects, especially in those belonging to or bordering on the Limousin group: canem > cạn cạn, vĕnit > vẹn vẹn, bŏnum $>$ bon bọn. The poets nearly always use the forms with close vowels.
(2) The breaking of e, o, under certain conditions, into diphthongs is not common to the whole territory, and the resulting forms show local differences: mĕum $>$ mẹu miẹu, föcum $>$ foc fuoc fuec füc. Breaking is least common in the southwest.

## II. PHONOLOGY.

14. Inasmuch as Provençal, like the other Romance languages, grew out of the Latin commonly spoken under the Roman Empire, we must take this latter language as our starting-point. The transformation was so gradual and continuous that we cannot assign any date at which speech ceases to be Latin and begins to be Provençal; since, however, the various Latin dialects-destined to become later the various Romance languages - began to diverge widely in the 6th and 7 th centuries, we may, for the sake of convenience, say that the Latin period ends at about this time. Before this, certain changes (which affected all the Romance tongues) had occurred in the popular language, differentiating it considerably from the classic Latin of the Augustan writers. Although the most important of these alterations have to do with inflections rather than with pronunciation, the sound-changes in Vulgar Latin are by no means insignificant.
15. It is essential at the outset to distinguish "popular" from "learned" words. The former, having always been a part of the spoken vocabulary, have been subject to the operation of all the phonetic laws that have governed the development of the language. The latter class, consisting of words borrowed by clerks, at various periods, from Latin books and from the Latin of the Church, is naturally exempt from sound-changes that occurred in the vulgar tongue before
the time of their adoption. The form of learned words depends, in the first place, on the clerical pronunciation of Latin at the date of their borrowing; then, if they came into general use, their form was subject to the influence of any phonetic laws that were subsequently in force. The fate of borrowed terms differs, therefore, according to the time of their introduction and the degree of popularity which they afterwards attained.

## 1. ACCENT.

16. The place of the primary-accent, which in Classic Latin was determined by quantity, remained unchanged in Vulgar Latin even after quantitative distinctions were lost. A short vowel before a mute followed by a liquid may, in Classic Latin, be stressed or unstressed; in Vulgar Latin it is usually stressed: cathédra, tenébra. ${ }^{1}$

There are some exceptions to the rule of the persistence of the accent in Vulgar Latin:-
r. An accented e or i immediately followed by the vowel of the penult transfers the stress to this latter vowel, and is itself changed to $y$ : filíolus $>$ filyólus, muliérem $>$ mulyére. This shift is perhaps due to a tendency to stress the more sonorous of two contiguous vowels.
2. An accented $u$ immediately followed by the vowel of the penult transfers the stress to the preceding syllable, and is itself changed to w: habuërunt $>$ ábwerunt, tenúéram $>$ ténweera. This shift cannot be explained on the same principle as the foregoing one; it is perhaps due in every case to analogy - hábuit, ténui, for instance, being responsible for the change in habierunt, temieram.
3. Verbs compounded with a prefix, if their constituent parts were fully recognized, were usually replaced in Vulgar Latin by a formation in which the vowel and the accent of the simple verb were preserved: déficit $>$ disfácit, réddǐdi $>$ reddédi, rénĕgo $>$ renégo, réquirrit $>$ requarit. In

[^6]récipit >recipit the accent but not the vowel was restored, speakers having ceased to associate this verb with capio. In cólligo, érigo, éxěo, inflo the composite nature of the word was apparently not recognized.

4. The adverbs $\begin{array}{rlll}a \\ c\end{array}$, illīc accented their last syllable, by the analogy of $h \bar{a} c, h \bar{i} c$.
5. In Provençal the primary accent falls on the same syllable as in Vulgar Latin: bonitātem $>\mathrm{V}$. L. bonitáte $>$ Pr. bontát, compŭtum $>\mathrm{V}$. L. cómputu $>$ Pr. cónte; cathědra $>\mathrm{V}$. L. catédra $>\mathrm{Pr}$. cadéira; filiŏlus $>\mathrm{V}$. L. filyólus $>\mathrm{Pr}$. filhóls, tenuĕram $>\mathrm{V}$. L. ténwera $>\operatorname{Pr}$. téngra, requĭrit $>\mathrm{V}$. L. requcrit $>$ Pr. requér, illac $>$ V. L. illác $>$ Pr. lai.
6. Some learned words have an irregular accentuation, apparently due to a mispronunciation of the Latin: cándǐdum $>$ quandí, grammátǐca $>$ gramatíca, láchry̆mo $>$ lagrim, spiritum $>$ esprit (perhaps from the formula spiritui sancto). Others were adopted with the correct stress, but shifted it later: fábrǐca $>$ fábrega $>$ fabréga (and fárga), fémína $>$ fémena $>$ feména (and fémna), láchry̆ma $>$ lágrema $>$ lagréma, sémìnat $>$ sémena $>$ seména (and sémna), vírgǐnem $>$ vérgena $>$ vergina (and vérge).
7. Dimércres < dīe Mercūrī has evidently been influenced by divénres < dīe Vĕnĕris.
8. Some irregularities due to inflection will be discussed under Morphology.
9. The secondary accent, in Vulgar Latin, seems not to have followed the Classic Latin quantitative rule, but to have fallen regularly on the second syllable from the primary stress: côgǐtó, cupůdǐtátem. If this secondary accent fôllowed the tonic, its vowel probably developed as an unstressed post-tonic vowel; if it preceded, its vowel was apparently treated as a stressed vowel. This treatment was doubtless continued in Provençal until the intertonic vowel dropped out: cógǐtó cógǐtánt > cug cúiian (cf. cánto cántant > can cántan), cupĩdĩtátem $>$ cupéðitáte $>$ cubéðtát $>$ cobeitát. As may be seen from this last example, after the fall of the intertonic vowel,
the secondary stress, being brought next to the primary, disappeared, and its vowel was henceforth unaccented. Cf. § $45, \mathrm{I}$.
10. Short, unemphatic words had no accent in Vulgar Latin, and were attached as particles to the beginning or the end of another word: te videt, áma me. Such words, if they were not monosyllabic, tended to become so; a dissyllabic proclitic beginning with a vowel regularly, in Vulgar Latin, lost its first syllable: illum vídeo $>\mathrm{V}$. L. lu véyo $>\mathrm{Pr}$. lo vei. A word which was used sometimes independently, sometimes as a particle, naturally developed double forms.

## 2. VOWELS .

## QUANTITY.

20. Latin had the following vowels, which might be long
 always long: $æ$ and $\propto$, however, were simplified into monophthongs, mainly in the Republican epoch, $a$ being sounded ê, $\propto$ probably è ; au retained (save in some popular dialects) its old pronunciation; eu did not occur in any word that survived; ui, in cui, illui, in Vulgar Latin, was accented úi (as in fui). The simple vowels, except a, were, doubtless from early times, slightly different in quality according to their quantity, the long vowels being sounded close, the short

21. Between the ist and the 7 th century of our era, the Classic Latin quantity died out: it had apparently disappeared from unstressed vowels as early as the $4^{\text {th }}$ century, from stressed by the 6th. It left its traces, however, as we have seen, upon accentuation (§ 16), and also upon vowel
quality, the originally long and short remaining differentiated in sound, if they were accented. Of the unaccented vowels, only i shows sure signs of such a differentiation, and even for $i$ the distinction is evident only in a final syllable: vènī vènĭt $>$ vẹnị vẹnịt.

## ACCENTED VOWELS.

22. The vowels of Vulgar Latin are a, e, e, $\underset{,}{i}, \underset{\imath}{i}, o, o, u, u$, with the diphthongs áu and uii; the old $æ$ and $\propto$ had become identical in sound with ee and e. As early as the 3 d century of our era, i was changed, in nearly all the Empire, to e, and thus became identical with the vowel coming from original è. A little later, perhaps, $\underset{\sim}{u}$, in the greater part of the Empire, became o, thus coinciding with the vowel that was originally $\overline{\bar{o}}$. Ypsilon, in words taken from the Greek, was identified, in early borrowings, with Latin $u$; in later ones, with Latin i: $\beta v ́ \rho \sigma a>\operatorname{Pr}$. borsa, $\gamma \hat{v} \rho o s>\operatorname{Pr}$. girs. Omicron, which apparently had the close sound in Greek, generally (but not always) retained it in recently borrowed words in Vulgar Latin: rópvos $>$ tọnus (cf. Pr. tọrn), but кódaфos $>$ cŏlăphus $=$ cọlapus or colapus (cf. Pr. colp).

The development of the Vulgar Latin vowels in Provençal will now be examined in detail:-

## a

23. Cl. L. ā, ă $>\mathrm{V}$. L. a $>\operatorname{Pr}$. a : ărbŏrem $>$ ąrbre, grātum $>$ grạt, măre $>$ mą.
r. The ending -arius shows an irregular development in French and Provençal, the Provençal forms being mainly such as would come from -errius; as in parlier, parleira. In the earliest stage we find apparently -err and -err'a; then -err and -eir'a; next -err, -ięr and -eeira, -iẹira; finally, with a reciprocal influence of the two genders, -er, -ier, -eir, and -ęra, -iẹra, -eeira, -ięira: caballarium $>c(h)$ avaler-ier,-eir, *man(u)aria
$>m a n e r a-i e r a-$ eira-ieira. The peculiar treatment of this suffix has not been satisfactorily explained. See E. R. Zimmermann, Die Geschichte des lateinischen Suffixes -arius in den romanischen Sprachen, 1895; E. Staaff, Le suffixe -arius dans les langues romanes, Upsala, 1896, reviewed by Marchot in Zs., XXI, 296, by Körting in Zeitschrift für französische Sprache, XXII, 55; Meyer-Lübke, Gram., I, 222, § 237; Zimmermann in Zs., XXVI, 591; Thomas in Rom., XXXI, 481. The most promising theory is that of Thomas: that -arius was associated with the Germanic ending -ari and participated in the umlaut which affected the latter; cf. also P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 34-36.
24. In Gascony and Languedoc $e i$ is used for $a i<h a b e o$. The $e i$ perhaps developed first as a future ending (amar -ei) by analogy of the preterit ending -ei (amei): see Morphology, §§ $152,1,162,(4), 175,(4)$, where this latter ending is discussed also. For a different explanation, see Meyer-Lübke, Gram., I, 222, § 237.
25. A few apparent irregularies are to be traced to the vocabulary of Vulgar Latin. For instance, Pr. sereisa represents, not Cl. L. cĕrăsus, but V. L. cërĕsĕa: see Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § ro3. Uebre is from * $\begin{gathered}\text { pecerrit, or }\end{gathered}$ apërit modified by *cöpĕrit $=$ cöperit. Voig is from *vŏcitum = vacuum: Einf., § 114.
26. Such forms as fontaina $=$ fontana $<$ fontãna, etc., and tres $=$ tras $<$ trans, etc., are French or belong to the borderland between French and Provençal.
27. In some dialects, particularly in Rouergue, Limousin, Auvergne, and Dauphiné, a became à before a nasal, and at the end of a monosyllable or an oxytone: canem $>$ can, grandem $>$ grạnt, cadit $>\mathrm{ca}$, stat $>$ esta.
r. The conditions differ somewhat in the various dialects, according as the nasal consonant falls or remains, and is followed by another consonant or not. In Limousin the sound is a before an $n$ that cannot fall: see § 11, (5). In Rouergue and in Dauphiné, a appears before all nasals. The poets generally follow the Limousin usage. See F. Pfützner, Ueber die Aussprache des provenzalischen $A$, Halle, 1884.

## e

25. Cl. L. ē, ĭ, œ $>$ V. L. ẹ $>$ Pr. ẹ: habēre $>$ aver, $m \bar{e}>$ mẹ,
mensem $>$ mẹs, plēnum $>$ plẹn, rëgem $>$ rẹi, vēndëre $>$ vẹndre; inter $>$ ẹntre, fĩdem $>$ fe, malǐtia $>$ malẹza, mïnus $>$ mẹns, mǐttëre $>$ mẹtre, sĭccum $>$ sẹc, vǐrüdem $>$ vẹtt; pœna $>$ pẹna.
I. Some words have ee instead of e e:-
(a) The ending -ètis in the present indicative becomes -etz through the analogy of etz<lystis.
(b) Camẹl (also ẹ), candẹla (also ee), cruzęl, fizẹl (also ẹ), maissẹla have e through the analogy of the suffix -el<-ellus. In camel the substitution probably goes back to Vulgar Latin.
(c) Many learned words, including proper names, have ę for ẹ: decrẹt, Elizabẹt, Moysęs, pantẹra, requięs, secrẹt (ee), sencęr.
(d) Espẹr for espẹr < spēro, quẹt for quẹt <qu(i)ètum are perhaps bad rhymes. Bartolomeo Zorzi, a Venetian, rhymes -es with -es; in Catalan these two endings were not distinguished.
(e) Individual cases: ades, 'at once,' probably from ad id ${ }^{\text {p } p \text { sum, seems }}$ to have been affected by prees and apress <ad prěssum; mostièr < monastêrium shows the influence of ministérium; nẹr nięr (also nẹr nẹgre) $<$ nigrum perhaps shows the influence of enteer entieer and the numerous adjectives in -ęr-ięr; neeu niẹu nẹy < nivem has been attracted by brẹu grẹu, leeu; sęze < sēdĕcim follows sęis < sĕx; senẹstre (cf. late Lat. sinexter) is evidently influenced by destre.
26. Many words have $i$ instead of $e:-$
(a) Berbitz $=$ vervēcem, camisa $=$ camissia,', dit $=$ ď̆ǧ̌̌um come from alternative V. L. forms, berbīcem, * camīsia, *dīgitum.
(b) In many learned words Latin 1 is represented by i in Provençal: albir, martire, edifici, iuzizzi, servizi, vici, etc.; iusticia, leticia, tristicia, etc.; planissa, sebissa, etc. Aurilha (also ee) <aurǐcula, cilh (also cieilh, sobreselhs) < cilium, issilh < exilium, familha < familia, maístre (also maẹstre maiẹstre) <mag'strum, meravilha (also e) < mirabrlia, perilh < perǐculum, etc., are probably learned forms. Mástre and mestre are French.
(c) Ciri $($ cere $)=$ cèreum, iure $($ cf. ebriac $)=\overline{e ̀ b r i u m ~}$ (or *èbrium), marquis (e), merci (ẹ), pais (ẹ) = *pagēnsem, plazir (e), pris (ẹ), etc., are French. For a discussion of iure and a different explanation of ciri, see P. SavjLopez, Dell' "Umlaut" provenzale, 1902, p. 4.
(d) Ins (also entz) < inntus, dins (also dens) < de intus, dintre (cf. en, entre) <de inter have not been satisfactorily explained. Regular forms with ẹ are found in Béarn, Gascony, Dauphiné, and the Alps.
 of Greek $\eta$; verin $=$ venēnum is an example of substitution of suffix.
27. Arnei, fei, mei=me, palafrei, perquei, sei=se are French or borderland forms. Mercey, rey =re, used by Marcabru, seem to be due either to an imitation of such forms as the preceding or to the analogy of crei cre<crèdo. Cf. § 65, N, 3 .
28. Contránher seems to be a fusion of constringere and contrahere; vendanha < vindèmia shows French influence.
29. An e in hiatus became i: lĭgat $>$ lia, ${ }^{*}$ sĭam $>\operatorname{sia}$, vǐa $>$ via.
30. When there was in the next syllable a final i, V. L. e was changed in Provençal to i: eccīllī $>$ cilh, ecc'ıॅstī $>$ cist, fēcī $>$ fis, ${ }^{*}$ prēsì $>$ pris, ${ }^{*}$ vènuī $>$ vinc, vigìntī * vĭntī $>$ vint.
i. In the nominative plural of masculine nouns and adjectives this change was regularly prevented by the analogy of the singular and the accusative plural: mǐssi$>m e s, p l \bar{l} \bar{n} \bar{\imath}>p l e n$. We find, however, cabil $<$ capilli.
31. Dec for * dic < dèbuī is probably due to the influence of the weak ending -ec, which owes its e to the -ei -est -et of the first and third conjugations. Venguest for venguist < * venuistī̀ is due both to the influence of the plural forms venguem, venguetz and to the analogy of the weak preterits, such as cantest, vendest.

## e

28. Cl. L. ĕ, $æ>$ V. L. ę $>$ Pr. ẹ: infërnum $>$ enfern, fĕrrum $>$ fę, pĕdem $>\mathrm{pe}$, trĕmülat $>$ trembla; calum $>$ cel, quarit $>$ quer.
29. Such forms as glisia, lire, pire, pis, profit are French. Profich may be a cross between profieg and profit, or it may be due to the analogy of dich.
30. Cossint, mint, sint, used by Arnaut Daniel, are perhaps faulty rhymes.
31. Auzil <avičllzt, in the Boeci, may be due to the analogy of such plural forms as cabil<capillî, il <illiz, etc. Briu, sometimes used for
breu < brervem, is evidently connected with abrivar, 'hasten,' the origin of which is uncertain. Elig shows the influence either of eligir (beside elegir) or of dig. Ginh $=$ genh <ingěnium evidently follows ginhos<ingeniōsus and its derivatives. Isme (esme) is a post-verbal noun from *ismar (cf. azismamen), a dialect form of esmar <astimare. Quis < *quesi, tinc<tënui are due to the analogy of pris<*prèsī, vinc < * vènui.
32. Beside nẹula < nębula, we find nebla, neble, presumably from the same source, and also nible, niól, nióla, niǔl, niǔla, nivól. According to Nigra, Archivio glottologico italiano, XV, 494, nūbes $>$ nübülus $>$ *nïbülus (and *nïbülus?), whence might be derived *niülus *niùlus, which would account for nioll-a, niúl-a, and perhaps for a $*$ nivol $>$ nivól. Nible might be regarded as a cross between neble and niul.
33. In ẹs < ̆̈st the ẹ probably comes from such combinations as mẹ's, quẹ's, understood as m'ẹs, qu'ẹ. Espẹlh < spečulum shows the influence of cossẹlh, solẹlh. Estẹla presupposes a Latin *stèla or *stèlla for stělla: cf. the Fr. and It.
34. Plais, 'hedge' seems to be a cross between plëxus and paxillus, 'fence.' Vianda (<vivenda?) is probably French.
35. Volon<volentem shows the influence of the ending -ündus.
36. Greuga<con-gregar has been influenced by greu<*grěvem $=$ gravem influenced by lĕvem. Cf. grey<grĭgem.
37. Before a nasal, in most of the dialects of Limousin, Languedoc, and Gascony, e became e: bĕne $>$ bẹn, dicĕntem $>$ dizen, tëmpus $>$ tẹms, tënet $>$ tẹn, vĕniam $>$ vẹnha, vĕntum $>$ vẹnt.
38. Early in the history of Provençal, before $u$, $i$, or one of the palatal consonants $l^{\prime}, r^{\prime}, s^{\prime}, z^{\prime}, y$, tš, dž, an e broke into ie, except in a few dialects of the west and north: deॅus $>$ dieus, měum $>$ miẹu; amāvi>*amai> amẹi amiẹi, *fĕria $>$ fiẹira, *ec(c)lĕsia ? (Cf. Zs., XXV, 344) > gliẹiza, lĕctum $>$ liẹit, pĕjus $>$ piẹis; vĕtŭlum vĕclum $>$ viẹlh, ministĕrium $>$ mestięr, *ec(c)lĕsia ? > gliẹza, média > mieẹa, lĕctum > liẹg. There seems to be also, at least in some dialects, a tendency to break the e before a g or a k : lĕgunt $>$ liegon; * sĕquit $>\mathrm{sec}$
siẹc, subjunctive siẹgas (sega), but infinitive sẹgre<* sëquere. ${ }^{1}$
The breaking was probably due to a premature lifting of the tongue under the influence of a following high vowel or a palatal (or velar) consonant. ${ }^{2}$ Before $u$ it occurred everywhere except in the extreme west; before palatals the e apparently remained intact both in the extreme west and in Quercy, Rouergue, Auvergne, and Dauphiné. At first, no doubt, the diphthong was less marked than it became in the 12 th and $13^{\text {th }}$ centuries. It is not indicated in our oldest text, the Boeci (breu, deu, eu, mei, meler, vel) ${ }^{8}$, and it frequently remains unexpressed even in the writings of the literary period.

It is to be noted that e does not break before $u<1$ nor before $\mathrm{i}<\delta$ : bĕllus $>$ bẹls $>$ bẹus, pĕtra $>$ * pẹ̃ra $>$ peira, Pětrum $>$ * Pę̃rre $>$ Pęire, rętro $>$ * ręđre $>$ rẹire ${ }^{4}$. The breaking must, therefore, have occurred before these developments of 1 and $\partial$, both of which apparently antedate the Boeci: cf. $e u z=e ̣ l s, ~ v . ~ 139 ; ~ e u=e l, ~ v . ~ 155 ; ~ T e i r i c<* ~ T e d r i c<T h e o d o-~$ ricum, v. 44, etc. On the other hand, there is no diphthong before ts, $\mathrm{d} z, \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{z}$ coming from Latin $c^{\prime}, \mathrm{cy}$, pty, tty, ty: dĕcem $>$ dẹtz, pĕttia (or pĕcia) > pẹssa, nëptia > nẹssa, * prëtiat $>$ preeza, prětium $>$ prettz $^{5}$. The breaking, therefore, took

[^7]place after these consonants had ceased to be palatal. We may ascribe it with some confidence to the period between the seventh and tenth centuries.

1. A number of cases of iee before r are doubtless to be explained by analogy. Hěri $>$ err; autre + er $>$ autręr, which, through the influence of adjectives in -ęr-ięr, became autrięr: hence the form ięr. Fërio, mëreo $>$ fier, mier, hence, by analogy, the first person forms profier, quier, then the third person forms fięr, mięr, profięr, quięr, sięrf (but sęrvon, sęrva), and the subjunctives ofięira, sofiẹ(i)ra.
2. Ięsc ( $=$ ĕxeo), ięscon, ięsca receive their diphthong either from earlier forms with s' or from ięis <ëxit.

$$
\underline{i}
$$

31. Cl. L. ì $>$ V. L. ị: amīcum $>$ amịc, fīnem $>$ fịn, trīstem $>$ trịst.
I. Freeg, frẹit are from V. L. * frı̌gdum =frī̌tdum, the Ǐ being perhaps due to the analogy of ryidum.

$\chi$
32. In the 13th century or earlier the group iu, in most dialects, became ieu: captīvum $>$ caitiu caitieu, astīvum $>$ estiu esticu, revīvĕre $>$ reviure revieure, sī vōs $>$ sius sieus.

## $\bigcirc$

33. Cl. L. $\overline{\mathrm{o}}, \mathrm{u}>$ V. L. $o>\operatorname{Pr}$. o, which developed into $\underset{~}{u}$ probably during the literary period: dolōrem $>$ dolọ, spōnsa $>$ espọsa, flōrem $>$ flọ; bŭcca $>$ bọca, gŭla $>$ gọla.
34. An irregular $\rho$, which is found in some words, goes back to Vulgar Latin: cọbra $=$ re-cŭperat, costa (also ọ) $=$ cōnstat, nọra $=$ nüra, $\frac{\varrho}{u}=$ ōvum, ploia $=$ plüvia, redọbla $=$ * redüplat, sọbra $=$ süperat, suefre $=$ sŭffero. V. L. *cöperat may be regarded as a fusion of cüperat and *coperit ( $\$ 40, \mathrm{I}$; cf. Rom. XXXI, 9) ; *cöstat is unexplained; * nöra shows the influence of sðror and sб̈č̌ra; the $\delta$ of * $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { rum } \\ \text { has been explained as due to }\end{aligned}$ differentiation from the following $v$; *plozia is to be connected with the popular plờĕre (cf. Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 142); *sø̈perat follows the analogy of *copperat; *sðffero evidently follows rffero. Redọbla (also ọ)
is not accounted for. If troba has anything to do with türbat, it was perhaps influenced by probat (cf. Zs., XXVIII, 50).
35. Some words have ii: iuis (also iọs) < deörsum shows the influence of süs < sūrsum; lür (usually lọr) <illörum (cf. lur in the dialects of Navarre and Aragon) comes through an *illürum due to the analogy of illūū $=$ illi ; melhüra (o), peiiura (ọ) perhaps follow aüra<*a(u)gūrat; rancüra is a mixture of rancōrem and cūra; üis is from V. L. ūstium $=$ ōstium (cf. Zs., XXV, 355); üpa <üpưppa is due to onomatopœe.
36. The adverbs ar, ara, er, era, eras, meaning 'now,' are hardly to be connected with höra. Meyer-Lübke takes era, etc., from a Latin *era
 cf. Gr., III, 552, note.
37. Adoutz, 'fount,' from addưctus, probably owes its $o u$ to the analogy of doutz, adouzar, from dŭlcis.
38. Tonleu, 'tariff,' from $\tau \in \lambda$ ف́vıov, shows a metathesis of vowels and of consonants.
39. Before tš, dž (and it, id), before $n^{\prime}$, and before final $i$, an o becomes ü in various dialects: cog ǧ̌tat $>$ cüia cüida, *stŭdiat $>$ estüia, fügit $>$ füg, refŭgium $>$ refüg; jŭngĕre $>$ iünher, üngĕre $>$ ünher, pŭgnum $>$ pünh; düū $>$ düi, sŭm $>$ sọ $+\mathrm{i}>$ süi. The ü before tš, dž apparently occurs everywhere except in Dauphiné; before $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ it is to be found in nearly all the dialects of the north and west; before final i it seems to be limited to Bordeaux, Auvergne, and a part of Languedoc.

## $\bigcirc$

35. Cl. L. ŏ $>$ V. L. o $>$ Pr. o: cŏr $>$ cọ, cŏrpus $>$ cọs, mŏrtem $>$ mort, ŏpĕra $>$ obra, rŏta $>$ rọda.
I. For demọra (also o) <* demŏrat, see Meyer-Lükbe, Gram., I, 204, § 220. For prọa (also prọa, prueva) <pr8bat, see Rom., XXXI, io, footnote 3 .

Х36. Before a nasal, in most of the dialects of Limousin, Languedoc, and Gascony, o became o: bŏnum > bọn, fŏntem
$>$ fọnt, pŏntem $>$ pọnt. Cf. E. Levy in Mélanges de philologie romane dédiés à Carl Wahlund, 1896, p. 207.
r. If the nasal was $n^{\prime}$, the vowel remained open in most or all of these dialects: cơgnita $>$ coinda cuenda cuenhda, lŏnge $>$ lonh luenh, sömnium $>$ sont suenh.

$\chi$
37. Early in the history of Provençal, before $u$, a labial consonant, a g or a k , an i , or one of the palatal consonants $\mathrm{I}^{\prime}, \mathrm{n}^{\prime}, \mathrm{r}^{\prime}, \mathrm{s}^{\prime}, z^{\prime}, \mathrm{y}, \mathrm{ts}, \mathrm{d}$ ž, an o broke, in most dialects, into a diphthong which developed into ue, üo, üe, or ü ${ }^{1}$ : bŏvem $>$ bou büọu büeu, *ŏvum $>$ ou üou üeu, nŏvus $>$ nọs nüous nüeus; * cŏpero $>$ cobri cüebre ${ }^{2}$, nŏva $>$ nọva nüeva, ŏpus $>$ ops üops, prơbat $>$ prọa prüeva, * trŏpo? $>$ trọp trüeb; cŏquus $>$ cọs cüocs cüex, föcum $>$ fọc füoc füec füc, cröcus $>$ grọs grüocs grüecs, jŏcum $>$ iọc iüoc iüec iüc, lŏcus $>$ lọcs lüocs lüecs, lŏcat $>$ lüoga, pŏtui $>$ püec, socc( $\breve{e}) r u m>$ (sozer) sogre süegre (fem. süegra); * ingrŏssiat $>$ engroissa engrüeissa, * angŏstia $>$ engọissa engüeissa, nŏctem $>$ nọit nüoit nüeit, ŏcto $>$ oit üeit, pŏstea $>$ poissas püeissas, prŏximus $>$ proymes prüeymes; follia $>$ folha füolha füelha fülha, ŏcŭlus óclus $>$ olhs üolhs üelhs ülhs, lŏnge $>$ lọnh lüenh, sŏmnium $>$ sọnh süenh, cŏrium $>$ cor cüer, pŏstea $>$ pües, prŏximum $>$ prosme prüesme, *plŏia $>$ plọia plüeia plüia, *inŏdiat $>$ enọia enüeia enüia, * pŏdiat $>$ pọia püeia püia, nŏctem $>$ nüoch nüech nüh, ŏcto $>$ üeg.

The breaking was probably due to a premature lifting of the tongue under the influence of a following high vowel or a palatal or velar consonant, or to a premature partial closure

[^8]of the lips in anticipation of a following labial. Before i or a palatal the diphthong was at the start presumably üo; before u or a labial or velar consonant, uo: from these two types, the first of which influenced the second, came the later developments. $\ddot{U}$ is a reduction of üo or üe; it apparently does not occur before u.

The dialect conditions are mixed, the development in each region depending somewhat on the following sound. In the southwest, o and ue seem to prevail; in the northwest, ü; in the west, in Limousin, and in Auvergne, üe; in Languedoc, üo; in the east and south, üe, üo, o.

The date of breaking is discussed in § 30 .
r. In some words where a diphthong would be expected, none is found, although it may have existed: mọu < mə̌vet, nọu < nơvem, plou < *plơvit; trọp < prop; brọcs<*bröccus, iogon < jorcunt, logui<löco. The form püoc or puiec <pottui is regularly reserved for the first person, pottuit being represented by poc.
2. A few cases of irregular breaking are easily explained: püosc püesc ( $=$ pössum $)$ and püosca puiesca ( $=p$ prssim) owe their diphthong either to earlier forms with $s^{\prime}$ or to the analogy of püec; sofre süefre süfre ( $=$ süffert) are from *sofferit, formed upon * offerit = offert (cf. § 33, r); vüelc ( $=$ volui) follows the analogy of vüelh ( $<$ *voleo $=$ vǒlo) and of puiec.

## u

38. Cl. L. $\overline{\mathrm{u}}>$ V. L. ụ $>$ Pr. ü: *habūtus $>$ avütz, jūstum $>$ iüst, mūrum $>$ mür, mūtus $>$ mütz, nūdus $>$ nütz, plūs $>$ plüs.

The date of the change of $u$ into $u ̈$ is not known; there is no ü in Catalan, and there may have been none in early Gascon. It seems likely that the Celts, when they adopted Latin, pronounced $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ a little further forward in the mouth than did the Romans; that their $u$ continued to advance gradually toward the front of the mouth until it became u; and that this $u$ spread to the parts of France that were not
originally Celtic. ${ }^{1}$ In the literary period the sound was probably ü in the Provençal region, with the possible exception of Gascony.

1. Pr. onze represents a V. L. *ünděcim, which in Gaul and Spain replaced ündëcim. Lọita lücha, trọcha trücha probably go back to Latin double forms, * lücta lūcta, * trŭcta trūcta. Engọissa < V. L. *angöstia $=$ angūstia (cf. Italian angoscia).
2. Nossas < *nöptias =nüptias, by analogy of *n乞̈vius, 'bridegroom,' from nờvus.

## au

39. Cl. L. au $>$ V. L. au $>$ Pr. au: aurum $>$ aur, gaudium $>$ gaug, paucum $>$ pauc, thesaurus $>$ tesaurs.
I. Bloi<blaupr, ioi, ioia, ioios, lotia<*laubja, noiza, onta<haunipa, or, sor, tesor, etc., are French. Iai, ' joy,' seems to be a fusion of ioi and Pr. $i a i=g a i$.
40. Anta<haunipa is unexplained.

## UNACCENTED VOWELS.

40. (1) The fate of an unaccented vowel depended largely upon the syllable in which it stood: in general, unstressed vowels in the initial syllable remained intact, while all vowels, except a, fell (at different dates) in the other syllables. The fall of unaccented vowels resulted in many new consonant groups: collocáre $>$ colcár, hóminem $>$ ómne, sábbatum $>$ sápte.
(2) The vowels $e_{e}$ and $i$, instead of falling or remaining unchanged, became y in Vulgar Latin, early in our era: alea $>$ alya, diürnus $>$ dyụrnus, mĕdium $>$ mẹdyu. Similarly $\mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{a}}$ became w: placui> placwi, tĕnuis $>$ tẹnwis.
41. Apparently, however, ęé, ié >e; oó, ưó>o: prěhěnděre >prënděre; abǔètem $>$ *abētem, faciēbat $>{ }^{*}$ facēbat, parüĕtem $>$ parētem, quīētus $>$

[^9] cim. The short e and o in prëndĕre and *cöpěrit are not accounted for. In muliĕrem ${ }^{1}>$ Pr. molher the it remained long enough (perhaps under the influence of the nominative mülier) to palatalize the 1 .

## Initial Syllable.

41. Usually, in the literary language, Latin a $>$ Pr. a; Latin $æ, \propto$, and $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{i}$ (without regard to quantity) $>\operatorname{Pr}$. e; Latin $\mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u}$ (long or short) $>$ Pr. o; Lat. au $>$ Pr. au, unless the next syllable contained an ú, in which case the au was reduced (in the Vulgar Latin time) to a. Ex.: amīcum $>$ amic, caballus $>$ cavals; aquālem $>$ egal, * p penĭtēre $>$ penẹdre, dēbēre $>$ devẹr, méliōrem $>$ melhọr, dīlĕctum $>$ delẹit, dîvinnum $>$ devin, dīvīdĕre $>$ devire, fīnīre $>$ fenir, minnörem $>$ menọ; plōrāre $>$ plorar, sōlātium $>$ solatz, cōlōrem $>$ colọ, ${ }^{*}$ vŏtēre $>$ volẹ, mūstēla $>$ mostẹla, sübïnde $>$ sovẹn; aucěllum $>$ auzẹl, audïre $>$ auzir, augŭstum $>$ aọst, * augūrium $>$ aür.
42. An initial vowel is occasionally lost, either through elision with the article (*eclësia >*eglẹisa, la eglẹisa $>$ la glęisa) or through the dropping of a prefix (ingěnium $>$ engẹnh gẹnh): epǐscơpus $>$ bisbes, alauda $>$ lauzeta, occasiönem >ocaiso caiso.
43. In a few words the vowel of the initial syllable disappeared, for some unknown reason, in Vulgar Latin: *cơrrơtưlāre $>$ *crötŭlāre $>$ crollar, dïrèctus $>$ drēctus $^{2}>$ dreitz, quïrìtäre $>{ }^{*}$ crìtāre $>$ cridar.
44. Domne, used familiarly as a proclitic (§ 19), lost its first syllable, and, before a vowel, was reduced to $n$. The combinations de $n$, que $n$ (followed by a proper name) were understood as $d^{\prime} e n$, $q u^{\prime} e n$; hence the title en, 'Sir.' See Schultz-Gora in Zs., XXVI, 588; Elise Richter in Zs., XXVII, 193 .
45. The proclitic o probably comes from a V. L. ot, not from aut.
46. The vowel of the initial syllable, especially in verbs,

[^10]was extremely subject to the influence of analogy: cülhir (o) through cülh (o)<cŏlľ̆git, dizen < dīcĕntem through dire $<$ dīcěre, dürar through dür $<$ dūrum and düra $<$ dürat, finir through fin $<$ finem, fivella through fibla $<$ fibula, puẹiar (o) through puèia (o) < * pödiat.

1. Avangeli (e) is perhaps influenced by avan; bliso (e) < blas may possibly have been influenced by tiso; gazardo < wiðarlôn shows the influence of gazanhar; in piucęla (pülcẹla) < *püellicęlla (Zs., XXV, 343) the püu of the first syllable was changed to piu perhaps under the influence of pius <pius; in vas = ves<ve( $r$ )sus the a is due to the analogy of $a z<$ $a d$; vais is unexplained, vaus follows daus ( $\S 44,6$ ). If dessee is from de exin, the first syllable is irregular. Beside maniar <manducare are unexplained forms meniar miniar. In duptar (o), suritz (o) the $u$ doubtless represents ụ or ọ, not ü. Girofle $<$ Kapuóфvג入ov and olifan orifan <elephantem are French.
2. Sometimes the initial syllable was altered by a change of prefix or a false idea of etymology: aucire <occīdĕre (cf. the Italian and Rumanian forms), diman (e) < de máne and dimenge $<$ domĭnĭcum (cf. di $<$ dīem), dementre $<$ dum ĭntërim (cf. de $<d e$ ), engọissa $<$ * angŭstia (cf. en $<$ in), envanezir $<$ evanēscĕre, escür <obscūrum (cf. es-<ex-), preọn prefọn (o)< profündum, redọn<rotündum (re-in V. L.: Schuchardt, Vocalismus des Vulgärlateins, II, 213), trabalh < trepalium (cf. tra-<tra-= trans-).
3. On the same principle are doubtless to be explained such double forms as evori (a), saboros (e), socors (e), somondre (e), soror (e). Serori occurs in a Latin inscription.
4. The prefix eccu-, under the influence of $a c$ and atque, became *accuin southern Gaul and elsewhere: aco<*accu'hoc, aquel<*accu'illum, aquest $<$ *accu'ǐstum, aqui $<{ }^{*}$ accu'hīc. Eissi<ecce hīc sometimes becomes aissi through the analogy of aissi<ac sīc.
5. In such forms as tresanar, the prefix tres- is French.

- 44. Local or partial phonetic changes affected the initial
syllable of many words: demandar (do-) < demandāre, emplir (üm-) <implēre; ciutat cieutat < civĩtātem; eissir issir <exire, getar gitar<*jĕctāre; crear criar<creāre; merce (mar-) < mercēdem; delgat (dal-) <delicātum.

1. Nearly everywhere there is a tendency to change e to o , u , or ü before a labial, especially before m : premier promier prumier, remas romas, semblar somblar, trebalh trubalh. So de ves $>*$ do ves $>$ dous.
2. In the I 3th century, nearly every where, iu $>$ ieu: piucela pieucela.
3. Many dialects of the north and west change ei and e to i: deissendre dissendre, eissam issam, eissi issi, eissilh issilh, leisso lisso, meitat mitat ; degerir ( $i$ ), denhar ( $i$ ), disnar, en in, enfern ( $i$ ), entrar ( $i$ ), envers ( $i$ ), escien icient, proclitic est ist, estar ( $i$ ), estiers $(i)$, Felip $(i)$, gelos ( $i$ ), genhos ( $i$ ), genolh ( $i$ ), gequir ( $i$ ), guereiar ( $i$ ), guerensa ( $i$ ), $i(n)$ vern, isnel irnel, peior pigor, proclitic per pir, premier (i), semblar (i), serven (i), serventes ( $i$ ), sevals ( $i$ ), trebalhar ( $i$ ), tremblar ( $i$ ). In disnar, ivern, isnel only i is found. In some dialects there is an alternation of $e$ and $i$, $e$ being used when there is an $i$ in the next syllable, i when there is none: fenit, sirvén. In vezi<vicinumm the e probably goes back to V. L.: cf. Fr.
4. In a few dialects $e$ in hiatus with a following vowel becomes i: crear criar, leal lial, prear priar, preon prion, real rial.
5. In many dialects of the north and west e has a tendency to become a before r: guerentia garensa, merce marce, pergamen pargamen.
6. In some dialects there is a tendency to assimilate e to an á in the next syllable: delgat dalgat, gigant iaian, deman (a), semblar (a), serrar (a), tremblar (a). So de vás $(\S 42,1)>$ da vás $>$ dávas; hence daus, under the influence of deus $>$ de ves.

## Intertonic Syllable.

445. The term intertonic is applied to the syllable that follows the secondary ( $\S 18$ ) and precedes the primary accent. In this position all vowels, except a, regularly disappeared in popular words, probably between the 5 th and the 8 th century ${ }^{1}$; a apparently remained: *bülliucāre $>$ boiar (bollegar),

[^11]bŏnǐtātem $>$ bontat, * carricāre $>$ carcar cargar, caballücāre $>$ cavalcar cavalgar, cěrěbĕllum $>$ cervẹl, civvĭtätem $>$ ciutat, cơllŏcāre $>$ colcar colgar, dèlǔcātum $>$ delcat delgat, excommūnĭcāre * excommĭnc̆cāre $>$ escomeniar, vērēcündia $>$ vergọnha; calaměllum $>$ calamè, invadĕre *invadīre $>$ envazir, margarīta $>$ margarida, mïrabı̆lia $>$ miravilha, parav (e)rēdus $>$ palafres.
I. The vowel is preserved in a number of words in which it originally bore the secondary accent (§ 18): abbréviáre >abreuiar, cupiditátem $>$ cobeitat, *ericiónem >erisso; on the other hand, *cominitiáre (through *comin'tiäre) $>$ comensar, partitiónem (through ${ }^{*}$ pártiónem $)>$ parso. Cf. $Z s$ s., XXVII, $576,684,693,698,701,704$. When kept, the vowel is sometimes altered: *carōnea *caróneáta > caraunhada, * cupiditósus $>$ cobeitos cobitos, papiliónem > pabalho.
2. The prefix minus- was reduced to mis- (or mes-) in Gaul, perhaps at the close of the Vulgar Latin period: * minus-prétiat > mespreza. Cf. P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 43, 44.
3. Mostier is from * monisterrium, altered, by the influence of ministe-rium, from monasterium. Comprar is from V. L. comperare. Calmelh calmelha (cf. calamel above) are Provençal formations from calm. Caresma or caresme, from quadragèsima, is probably French. Anedier $<$ anatarium shows the influence of anét ánet <anătem (§ 50).
4. In learned words the vowel is generally preserved: irregulár, irritár, pelicán, philozophia. The vowel is, however, often altered, the exchange of e and i being particularly frequent: esperit, femenil, orifán, peligrí (e), soteirán (sotrán) < subterraneum influenced by dereirán and primeirán.
46. Very often the intertonic vowel was preserved by the analogy of some cognate word or form in which that vowel was stressed: devinár through devin, finimén through finir, guerreiár through guerréia, noiridúra through noirír, oblidár through oblit, pertusár through pertúsa, reusar through reúsa, servidór through servire.

[^12]1. In such cases the preserved vowel is sometimes altered, the exchange of e and i being especially common: avinén, covinén, sovinénsa, cf. venir, ven; enginhár, enginhós, cf. genh; envelzir, cf. vil; gememén, cf. gemir; issarnit (eissernit), from excęrnëre; randóla, from hiründüla, perhaps influenced by randón; temerós (o), from *timorōsus, influenced by temér; traazó (i), from traditiōnem, with a substitution of suffix; volentiérs, from voluntarius, under the influence of volén $<$ volentem.

## Penult.

47. (1) The vowel of the penult of proparoxytones fell in many words in Vulgar Latin, especially between a labial and another consonant, and between two consonants one of which was a liquid: * av̌̆ca $>^{*}$ auca, cŏm (i)tem, cömp $(u)$ tum, dèb $(i)$ tum, dŏm(i)nus ${ }^{1}$; alt(e)ra, v̆̆g(i)lat, cal(i)dus, vĭr(i)dem; frig(i)dus, nǐtǐdus > * nǐttus, pŏs(i)tus, pūtīdus > * püttus.
(2) The classic Latin -culus comprises an original -clus (saclum) and an original -culus (aurǐcüla). In popular Latin both were -clus (* macla, ŏclus, etc.), to which was assimilated -tŭlus in current words (větŭlus >vĕclus, etc.).
(3) Many popular words which in Vulgar Latin had very generally lost the vowel were for some reason introduced into southern Gaul in their classical forms, and not a few were adopted both in the uncontracted and in the syncopated state: fragǐlem $>$ frágel (cf. Fr. fraile, It. frale), jŭvĕnem $>$ iọve (cf. Fr. iuevne); clërĭcum > clęrgue clĕr'cum > clẹrc, dēbı̆tum $>$ dẹute dèb'tum $>$ dẹpte, fébülem $>$ frẹvol flèb'lem $>$ frẹble, mal'habitum $>$ malaute mal'hab'tum $>$ malapte, nǐtüdum $>$ nẹde ${ }^{*}$ nĭttum $>$ nẹt, hŏmĭnem $>$ ome hŏm'nem $>$ omne, pŏpŭlum $>$ pobol pŏp'lum $>$ poble.
48. Cognitum seems to have become * cónhede, whence coinde cuende conge. Cf. § 79, Gnd, Gnt.

[^13]48. The unaccented penult vowels that had not already fallen dissappeared, in most cases, in the transition from Latin to Provençal: * carrĭcat $>$ carca, cŏllŏcat $>$ colca, cŭrrĕre $>$ corre, spathŭla $>$ espatla, * ĕssĕre $(=$ ĕsse $)>$ éstre, $\bar{i}(n)$ sŭla isla, pĕssïmum $>$ pesme, pōnĕre $>$ pọnre, * rīdĕre $>$ rire, tabŭla $>$ taula, töllĕre > tolre.

1. A apparently was more tenacious than other vowels, and frequently remained as an indistinct e: anătem $>$ ánet, which, being associated with the diminutive ending -ét, became anét (cf. modern Pr. anèdo); cannăbim $>$ cánebe (learned?) ; collăphum $>$ * cólebe $>$ colbe, but col"phum $>$ cọlp; Stěphănum $>$ Estẹve; lampăda $>$ lámpeza; ðrgănum $>$ órguene (later orguéne) órgue ; örphănum $>$ orfe; raphănum $>$ ráfe; Rhödănum $>$ Rọzer ; *sêcăle ( $=$ sěcāle) $>$ séguel (but cf. modern segle selho). Cf. A. Thomas in the Journal des savants, June, 1901, p. 370. See also P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 90-94. Cf. § 45 , footnote. It is noteworthy that *cólebe ultimately lost its penult, while the other words lost the final syllable or none.
2. Under certain conditions, however, a vowel which had not fallen in the Latin of southern Gaul was often kept in Provençal. It was then probably indistinct in sound, and was written usually $e$, but occasionally 0 .
(i) After $c^{\prime}$, $g^{\prime}$, or $y$ the vowel was apparently retained in some dialects and lost in others. When the $c^{\prime}, g^{\prime}$, or $y$ was intervocalic, forms with and without the vowel are about equally common; when the $c^{\prime}$, $g^{\prime}$, or $y$ was preceded by a consonant, forms with the vowel predominate, and after cons. $+c^{\prime}$ the vowel was apparently never lost. After intervocalic $\mathrm{c}^{\prime}$ : cöcĕre $(=$ cŏquĕre $)>$ cọire cọzer, dīcĕre $>$ dire dízer, dūcĕre $>$ düire *düzer (condücir dedüzir), facĕre $>$ faire *fázer (fazedor, etc.), grač̆lem $>$ graile, * nŏcĕre ( $=$ nŏcēre $)>$ nọire nozer, placĭtum $>$ plach, sŏcěrum $>$ sozer (sogre is from sŏcrum $)$, * vŏcǐtum $(=$ vacuum $)>$ vuech. After intervocalic $g^{\prime}$ or $\mathrm{y}:$ bajŭlus $>$ bailes, frağ̌lem $>$ frágel, imaginem $>$ imáge, lĕgĕre $>$ lẹire legír (through *leger?), rigidum $>$ rẹide rege, rǐgǐda $>$
rẹgeza, *tragęre $(=$ trahĕre $)>$ traire tragír (through * tráger?). After cons. $+c^{\prime}:$ carcer $>$ cárcer, crēscëre $>$ crẹisser, nascĕre $>$ náisser, pascęre $>$ páisser, parcĕre $>$ párcer, * tŏrcĕre ( $=$ tŏrquēre $)>$ torzer. After cons. $+\mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ or y : angĕlum $>$ ángel (learned?), * cŏll'gěre ( $=$ cơll̆̆gĕre, through cŏllĭgo etc.) $>$ colre cuelher colhír, * dē-ēr'gěre (=èř̆gěre) > derdre dẹzer, * fŭlgĕrem (from fülger $=$ fŭlgur) $>$ fọuzer, jüngĕre $>$ iọnher, margĭnem $>$ marge, plangĕre $>$ planher, vǐrgĭne $m>$ vẹrgena vẹrge.
(2) After ks, s, ss, and sy the vowel was apparently retained in some dialects and lost in others: dīxěrunt $>$ diron disseron (through * dísseron) ${ }^{1}$, dūxěrunt $>$ düystrent düissęon (* dúisseron), fraxinum $>$ fraisne fraisse, traxĕrunt $>$ traisseron (* tráisseron), tŏxǐcum $>$ tuęissec; asĭnum $>$ asne ase, mĭsĕrum $>$ miser (learned), * prē $(n)$ sĕrunt $>$ prẹson prezeron (* prẹzeron), rema( $n$ ) sěrunt $>$ remastrent remaseron (*remáseron); * éssĕre $(=$ ĕsse) $>$ estre esser (used in Rouergue, Limousin, Marche, and Dauphiné), * mǐssĕrunt ( $=$ mīsěrunt) $>$ mestrunt (mẹsdren) mesęron (* mẹsseron), passĕrem $>$ pásser; * cō( $n$ )siëre $(=$ consuĕre $)>$ coser (cozír is from V. L. * cosïre).
(3) Between a labial and a dental the vowel was apparently kept: cüpı̆dum $>$ cọbe, fēmĭna $>$ fẹmena fẹme (but fēm'na $>$ fẹmna), jüvěnem $>$ iọve, * lümĭnem $>$ lüme (lūmen $>$ lüm), hŏmĭnem $>$ ómen óme (but hŏm'nĕm $>$ omne), tĕp̆̆dum $>$ tẹbe, tĕrminnum $>$ tẹrme. Cf. § 48, $\mathbf{1}$.
(4) Between a dental and a guttural the vowel remained long enough for the guttural to become $y\left(\S 5^{2} ; \S 65, G\right)$ : mĕdı̆cu $m>^{*}$ mẹdegu $>$ * mẹdeye $>$ mẹdže $(=$ mege). If the first consonant was a liquid or a nasal, the vowel apparently allowed the guttural to become y in some dialects, but not in

[^14]others: * carrícat > caria carga, clĕrǐcum > clęrie clẹgue, mŏnăchum $>$ monie mongue. Caballĭcat $>$ cavalga, cơllŏcat $>$ colca colga show an earlier fall. In clër' cum $>$ clẹrc the fall goes back to Latin times.
50. Some learned proparoxytones kept for a while both post-tonic vowels (usually written $e$ ), but most of them ultimately either shifted their accent to the penult (§ $£ 7,1$ ) or dropped their final syllable: domĕstz̈cum $>$ domestegue, lacrïma $>$ lágrema, měrǐtum $>$ męrite, hŏrrĭda $>$ oreza, rēgĭmen $>$ régeme; fĭstŭla $>$ festóla, fragĭlem $>$ fragíl, mĕrǐtum $>$ merít, těrmĭnum $>$ termíni; diacŏnum $>$ diágue, flēbŭlem $>$ frẹvol (cf. flēb'lem $>$ frẹble), nĭtüdum $>$ nẹde (cf. * nìttum $>$ nẹt), ōrdïnem $>$ órde, pŏpŭlum $>$ pọbol (cf. pŏp'lum $>$ poble), prīncĭpem $>$ príncep prínce. Cf. §47, (3).

## Final Syllable.

51. As early as the 8 th century, in popular words, the vowels of final syllables fell, the fall occuring first, perhaps, after liquids: hĕř $>$ ę, malĕ $>\mathrm{mal}$; bŏnŭs $>$ bos, cŏlăphŭm $>$ colp, cōǧ̌to $>$ cüg, paněm $>$ pan, prětiŭm $>$ prẹtz.
(i) Latin a, however, remained, being generally pronounced ạ: audiăm $>$ auia, bŏnă $>$ bona, fíliās $>$ filhạs. ${ }^{1}$
(2) Latin final i probably remained in all dialects later than the 8 th century, and in some until the beginning of the literary period: hábui>>águi $>$ aguí. Before it fell, it changed an accented e in the preceding syllable to ị: see § 27 .
(3) Latin i and u remained if they were immediately

[^15]preceded by an accented vowel: fuī>füi, měī> mẹi, sŭü $>$ sọi; cavum * caum $>$ chau, dĕus $>$ dẹus, ĕgo *ěo *ĕu $>$ ẹu, rīvum rium < riu. In such cases the two vowels formed a diphthong.
(4) Before final nt Latin e, u remained as e, o: cantent $>$ canten, vēndunt $>$ vẹndon.
I. In Aude, Tarn, Aveyron, Corrèze, and a part of Haute-Garonne, final i was preserved as late as the 12 th century : pagadi, salvi, soli. See Rom., XIV, 291-2. Such forms occur also in Vaud and Dauphiné. Cf. Gram., II, p. 82.
2. In the extreme east there are traces of final $-\bar{s}$ : aquestos, ellos, tantos.
3. Grau for gra<gradum, niuu for ni<nīdum are Catalan. Amiu for amic <amīcum, chastiu for chastic <castīgo belong to the dialect of Forez, and point to a very early fall of the guttural in that dialect. Cf. $\S 65$, D, G.
4. Ferre beside the commoner fer <fĕrrum is perhaps due to the analogy of terra. Aire, vaire, beside air <ą̈rem, vair < varium, probably show the influence of the numerous nouns in -aire (amaire, etc.); cf. $\S 5^{2}$, ( I . Fores is doubtless a cross between foras $<$ for ras and fors $<$ foris. Nemes beside nems <nimis, senes beside sens<sine perhaps follow the analogy of fors fores. For colbe, see $\S 48$, I. Reide rede perhaps owes its -e to rege: § 49, ( I ).
5. Coma, beside com, con, co<quōmö(do), apparently owes its -a to the analogy of the adverbs bona and mala and other adverbs of manner. For a different explanation, see J. Vising in the Tobler Festschrift (Abhandlungen Herrn Prof. Dr. Tobler . . . . dargebracht, 1895), p. 1 I3.
6. Demanes<de manu $\tau p s a$ lost its -a perhaps under the influence of ades.
7. E seems to have been preserved in the second person singular of some verbs, to distinguish it from the third person: $\operatorname{co}(\mathrm{g})$ nōscis $<$ conọisses, co(g)nōscit >conọis.
52. When the fall of the vowel would have resulted in an undesirable consonant group at the end of a word, the vowel was retained as an indistinct e: dübŭto $>$ dọpte, lŭcrum $>$ logre.

The principal groups that call for a supporting vowel are:
(1) a consonant and a liquid; (2) a labial and a dental;
(3) in proparoxytones, a consonant and a $c^{\prime}$ or $c$ originally separated by the vowel of the penult; (4) in proparoxytones, a consonant and an $m$ or $n$ originally separated by the vowel of the penult. Ex.: ĭnter $>$ entre; aptum $>$ apte; * dödĕcim $>$ dọtze, jūdŭco > iütge; *Jacǒmus > Iacmes, asĭnum > asne.

If the word was a paroxytone, and the first consonant was a palatal and the second an r , the supporting vowel stood between the two: major $>$ maier, mĕlior $>$ melher, mülier $>$ molher, pĕjor $>$ peier, sĕnior $>$ senher. Otherwise the supporting vowel followed the consonant group.

The four classes of groups (aside from the palatal $+r$ just mentioned) will now be examined in detail:-
(1) Examples: alter $>$ autre, Carŏlus $>$ Carles, düplus $>$ dobles, * ěssĕre $>$ ęstre, fabrum $>$ fabre, * mĕr $(\breve{u})$ lum $>$ męrle, nŏster $>$ nostre, pauper $>$ paubre, pŏp $(\breve{u})$ lum $>$ poble, pōnĕre $>$ pọnre, recïpĕre $>$ recẹbre, rümpĕre $>$ rọpre, tŏllĕre $>$ tọlre, vŏlvĕre $>$ volvre; mascŭlum $>$ mascle, etc.; flēb( $\left.{ }^{\text {u }}\right)$ lem $>$ frẹble, etc. Under this head is included r-r (cŭrrere > corre, quarĕre $>$ quęrre), but not 11 and rr (bĕllum $>$ bęl, fĕrrum $>$ fęr). In Provençal the first element was often changed, later than the 8th century, into a vowel, original b and v becoming u , and $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{g}$, and y being turned to $\mathrm{i}:$ bĭbĕre $>$ bẹure, scrībĕre $>$ escriure, * mŏvĕre $>$ mọure, plŏvĕre $>$ ploure, vivĕre $>$ viure; latro $>$ laire, matrem $>$ maire, radĕre $>$ raire, * ridĕre $>$ rire, vŭtrum $>$ vẹire; desïdĕro $>$ desire, etc.; amător $>$ amaire, servītor $>$ servire, etc.; dīcĕre $>$ dire, dūcĕre $>$ düire, facĕre $>$ faire, gracĭlem $>$ graile, * tacĕre $>$ taire; frīgĕre $>$ frire, weigăro gaire, lĕgĕre > lẹire; bajŭlum > baile. Apparent exceptions to the rule are intervocalic $\mathrm{cl}, \mathrm{gl}$, which were probably reduced to single consonants before the 8th century: $\check{o} c(\breve{u}) l u m>o l h$, vĭg(ǐ) $l o>$ vẹlh.

1. The rare forms frair, pair, beside regular fraire, paire, are perhaps due to the alternative forms air aire, vair vaire (§ 51, 4). There may be a similar explanation for faur $=$ faure $<$ faber, and for the learned albir $=$ albire < arbïtrium. Sor, beside sorre < söror, probably developed first as a proclitic.
(2) Examples: cŭbŭtum $>$ cọde; cŏmĭtem $>$ comte; dēbĭtum $>$ dẹpte dẹute, § 47, (3); dŏmnum $>$ domne; dŭbĭto $>$ dopte; hŏspĭtem $>$ oste; sabbătum $>$ sapte.
2. Azaut seems to be post-verbal from azautar <adaptāre. Escrit $<$ scriptum probably shows the influence of dit $<$ dictum. Malaut, beside malaute malapte $<$ mal'habitum, is perhaps reconstructed from the feminine malauta on the model of aut, auta. Set $<$ sĕptem must have developed as a proclitic.
(3) Examples: jūdicem $>$ iütge $^{1}$; pŏllĭcem $>$ pouze; quindĕcim $>$ quinze; salı̆cem $>$ sauze; sĕdĕcim $>$ sedze;-canŏnйcum $>$ canonge canorgue, ${ }^{2} \S 49$, (4); clĕrĭcum $>$ clẹge clẹgue (§ 48 , 2); mĕdücum $>$ metge; mŏnăchum $>$ monge mongue morgue, ${ }^{2}$ $\S 49,(4)$; vĭndĭco $>$ vẹnie; viatĭcum $>$ viatge, etc.
3. The forms poutz, sautz, beside pouze, sauze, would seem to indicate that $1 c^{\prime}$ did not require a supporting vowel in all dialects.
4.     * Ficotum (=jēcur), a fusion of $\sigma v \kappa \omega \tau b \nu$ ('fig-fattened') and fïcus, combined with *hēpăte (= hēpar), became * fẹ́catu * fẹcitu *fẹgidu, and then, through the influence of the familiar ending -igu ( $=$ icum), $*$ fedigu $>$ fetge. See G. Paris in Miscellanea linguistica in onore di G. Ascoli, 1901, p. 41 ; H. Schuchardt in $Z$ s., XXV $^{\prime} 6$ 5, and XXVIII, 435 ; L. Clédat in Revue de philologie française et de littérature, XV, 235. Pege, for peich <pĕctus, seems to be due to the analogy of fetge.
(4) Examples: astĭmo>esme; dĕcĭmum $>$ desme; fraxĭnum $>$ fraisne; incūdĭnem $>$ enclütge (cf. §8o, Dn); * metг̆psimum $>$ medesme; pĕssĭmum $>$ pesme; prŏxĭmus $>$ prosmes.
5. Faim < facimu(s) doubtless lost its -e through the analogy of the alternative form fazẹm <* facimu(s) and of the usual endings -ám, -ẹm.

[^16](5) In some dialects, at least, by, mby, mny, py, rny required a supporting vowel: rŭbeum $>$ rọtge, cambio $>$ camie, sömnium $>$ songe suenh, apium $>$ ache api, Arvërnium $>$ Alvernhe; ratge ( = rabiem) is probably French. Original lm, $\mathrm{rm}, \mathrm{sm}$ required a supporting vowel in some dialects but not in others: hëlm>ẹlme ẹlm, ŭlmum>ọlme olm, palmum $>$ palm; *ĕrmum ( ${ }^{\text {é } \rho \eta \mu o v) ~>~ e r m, ~ f i ̈ r m u m ~}>$ fẹrm, gĕrmen $>$ gẹrme; spasmum > espasme.
(6) Many verbs regularly have an -e in the first person singular of the present indicative: desire, doppte, iütge, etc. By the analogy of these, -e often appears in the first person singular of verbs which need no supporting vowel: remīro> remir remire. By the analogy of the preterit (águi, füi, etc.), -i is very often substituted for this -e: azor azori, cant canti, pretz preezi, etc.
53. Many late words preserve the final vowel as $-e$ : benigne, bisbe<epı̆scŏpum, digne (cf. denhar), mixte (cf. mẹt), regne (cf. reing), signe (cf. sẹnh). Cf. § 50 ; (for colbe) § 48 , $\mathbf{r}$; and (for coinde, etc.) § 47, $\mathbf{I}$. Learned formations from nouns in -ium usually end in $-i$, simply dropping the -um: capitoli, edifici, empęri, iüzízi, martíri (martíre), negọci, ofíci, periüri, remezi, servízi, vici. Similar forms in $-i$ were sometimes taken from the accusative of nouns and adjectives in -ius: Boẹci $<$ Boëthium, propri (propre) $<$ prŏprium, savi < sabium.
I. It should be remembered that the Latin words, at the time of their adoption, had undergone various phonetic changes in the clerical pronunciation: cf. § 15 . A form remezi, for instance, presupposes a pronunciation of remedium as remę $\partial \mathrm{iu}(\mathrm{m})$.

## 3. CONSONANTS.

54. The Latin consonants which we have to consider are: $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}(=\mathrm{k}), \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{j}(=\mathrm{y}), \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{qu}(=\mathrm{kw}), \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{v}$ (=w), x (=ks). To these we must add the Vulgar Latin w coming from $u$, and $y$ coming from e, i: see $\S 40,(2)$. Furthermore, in words borrowed from Germanic dialects we find $\mathrm{b}, \delta, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{w}$, which call for special notice; and, in words borrowed from Greek, ch, k, ph, th, $z$.

The Latin d, f, j, l, p, t call for no remark at present. Latin $h$, in popular speech, became silent very early ( $h o \check{c}>$ ŏc, hŏmo>ŏmo), and, although an attempt was made to restore it in polite speech, it left no trace in the Romance languages: cf. Rom., XI, 399. Double consonants were pronounced distinctly longer than single ones: annus, ïlle, össum, tërra.
55. Latin b, c, g, m, n, qu, r, s, v, w, x, y show the following developments in popular Latin speech:-

B between vowels became, through failure to close the lips tightly, $\beta$ (bilabial v), from the ist to the 3 d century of our era: habere $>\mathrm{a} \beta$ ere. The same change took place, to a certain extent, when the b was not intervocalic, but we have few, if any, traces of it in Provençal. Between vowels, even in learned words, the clerical pronunciation was probably $\beta$ or $v$ until the 7 th century. Cf. V.

C before a front vowel (e, i), as early as the 3 d century, doubtless had, in nearly all the Empire, a front or palatal articulation; that is, it was formed as close as possible to the following vowel ${ }^{1}$ : cĕntum $>c^{\prime}$ ĕntu, dūcĕre $>$ dūc'ĕre. The $^{\text {cen }}$ next step was the introduction of an audible glide, a brief $y$, between the $c^{\prime}$ and the vowel ${ }^{2}$ : c'yentu, duc'yere. By the

[^17]$5^{\text {th }}$ century this $c^{\prime} y$ had developed into a kind of ty, the $c^{\prime}$ having been drawn still further forward: t'yentu dutt'yere. Through a modification of the $y$-glide, the group then became, in the 6 th or 7 th century, tš or ts: tšentu tsentu. See H. Schuchardt, Voc., I, 151, and Ltblt., XIV, 360; P. E. Guarnerio, in Supplementi all'Archivio glottologico italiano, IV (1897), pp. 21-51 (cf. Rom., XXX, 617); G. Paris, in the Journal des savants, 1900, 359, in the Annuaire de l'École pratique des Hautes-Études, 1893, 7, in the Comptes rendus des séances de l'Académie des Inscriptions, 1893, 81, and in Rom., XXXIII, 322 ; W. Meyer-Lübke, Einf., pp. 123-126; F. G. Mohl, Zs., XXVI, 595 ; P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 51-53; P. Meyer, Die Aussprache des c und t im klassischen Latein, 1902. Cf. G and X. ${ }^{1}$

G between vowels, before the accent, disappeared in some words in at least a part of the Empire: le $(g) \bar{a} l i s, l i(g) \bar{a} m e n$, $r e(g) \bar{a} l i s$, (realis is attested for the 8th century); ĕgo, generally used as a proclitic, everywhere lost its $g$; on the other hand, $g$ was kept in castigāre, fatigāre, ligāre, negāre, pagānus. $G$ before a front vowel ( $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{i}$ ), by the 1 st or 2 d century, was pronounced $\mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ (cf. C) : gĕntem $>$ g'ĕnte, fragĭlis $>$ fragĩlis. As early as the 4 th century this $\mathrm{g}^{\prime}$, through failure to form a close articulation, opened into $\mathrm{y}^{2}$ : yęnte, fráyilis. Before an accented e or i an intervocalic y disappeared, in the greater part of the Empire, being fused with the vowel: magister $>$ mayister $>$ maẹster, ${ }^{*}$ pagēnsis $>$ payẹsis $>$ paẹsis, regina $>$ reyịna $>$ reịna. ${ }^{1}$

M and n , when final, were weak and indistinct from the earliest times, except in monosyllables; by the 3 d or 4 th cen-

[^18]tury they had probably disappeared altogether from the end of polysyllables: damnu, nọme; but jam, non.

N before spirants (f, j, s, v), except in the prefixes con- and in-, became silent during the Republican period, the preceding vowel, if it was short, being lengthened by compensation $^{1}: m \bar{e}(n) s i s, p \bar{e}(n)$ sare. If the syllable con- or $i n$ - was not recognized as a prefix, the n fell: $\operatorname{co}(n) \operatorname{sul}, \operatorname{co}(n)$ ventum, $i(n) f a s$. In learned and newly constructed words the $n$ was pronounced. Cf. M.

Qu, gu before o or $u$ were reduced to $c, g$ in the 1 st or 2 d century: see W.

R before s , in a number of words, became s in the Republican period: deōrsum $>$ deōssum, dŏrsum $>$ dŏssum, sürsum $>$ süssum; so, in a part of the Empire, pěrsĭca $>$ pĕssĭca, věrsus (preposition) $>$ vĕssus. Early in our era ss after a long vowel was reduced to s: deōsu, sūsu.

S was probably always voiceless, or surd, in classic Latin, but became voiced between vowels, in Gaul, at the end of the Vulgar Latin period: casa. To initial $\mathrm{s}+$ consonant an i or e was prefixed, at first, no doubt, after a word ending in a consonant: in schŏla> in iscŏla; this process began in the 2 d century and had become general by the 4 th.

V , originally pronounced w , became $\beta$ probably in the ist century: vīvĕre $>\beta \bar{i} \beta$ ĕre. Before u , $v$ regularly disappeared, but it was restored by analogy in many words: flavus $>$ flaus, ōvum $>$ ŏum, rivus $>$ rius; but also ŏvum, rīvus, by the analogy of ova, rivi. In the greater part of the Empire vapparently fell also before an accented o: pavōnem $>$ paōne, pavōrem $>$ paōre. Cf. W. When a $\beta$, representing either b or v ,

[^19]became contiguous to a following consonant, it changed to u : ${ }^{*}$ avǐca $>\mathrm{a} \beta$ ĭca $>$ auca, gabăta $>$ gaßata $>$ gauta, * flavǐtat $>$ fla$\beta_{\text {itat }}^{>}>$flautat. In several words rv became rb in Latin: vervēcem $>$ berbēce berbīce, cŏrvus $>$ cŏrbus, cŭrvus $>$ cŭrbus.

W coming, in the 2 d or 3 d century, from u (§40) differed from Latin $v$, then pronounced $\beta$, but was probably identical with Germanic $w$ : dèbuī>dẹbwị, placuī> placwị sapuit $>$ sapwit, tĕnuis $>$ tẹnwis. W fell between a consonant and o or u: antīquus $>$ antịcus, battuo $>$ batto, carduus $>$ cardus, cŏquus $>$ cocus, distïnguo $>$ distịngo, mŏrtuus $>$ mortus; so eсси'hŏc $>$ Pr. aco. Cf. Qu.
$\mathrm{X}(=\mathrm{ks})$ was reduced to s , in the 2 d or 3 d century, before a consonant or at the end of a word of more than one syllable: sĕstus, sěnes; but sĕx. So the prefix ex-> es- before any consonant but s: *exgaudère $>$ Pr. esiauzir, ${ }^{*}$ exlucëre $<$ Pr. esluzir, *exmĭttĕre $>$ Pr. esmẹtre. Ex -+s apparently became either ex- or ess-: *exsanguinātum $>$ Pr. eissancnat, * exserāre $>$ Pr. eissarrar esserrar, ${ }^{*}$ exsaritāre $>$ Pr. eissartar, * exsĕquĕre $>$ Pr. essęgre, * exsŭrgĕre $>$ Pr. essorger, *exsūcāre $>$ Pr. eissügar essügar.

Y coming, in the 2 d or 3 d century, from e or i , (§ 40) coincided with Latin $j$ : habeam $>$ abya, eāmus $>$ yamus, tĕneat $>$ tẹnyat; audio $>$ audyo, filia $>$ filya, vĕniat $>$ vẹnyat. As early as the 4 th century the groups dy, gy were reduced to $y$; and ly, ny probably became $\mathrm{l}^{\prime}, \mathrm{n}^{\prime}:$ médius $>$ mẹdyus $>$ mẹyus, corrĭgia $>$ corrigya $>$ corrẹya; mélior $>$ mellyor $>$ mell'or, tëneo $>$ tenyo $>$ tẹn'o.
56. Germanic $\mathrm{b}, \delta, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{w}$ call for special mention:-
$B$ did not participate in the change of Latin intervocalic $b$ to $\beta$ : roubôn $>\operatorname{Pr}$. raubar. The words containing it were evidently adopted after this phonetic law had ceased to operate.

ס, p were pronounced by the Latins as $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}$ : * waiðanjan $>$ * wadanyāre $>$ Pr. gazanhar (It. guadagnare), prëscan $>$ * trescāre $>$ Pr. trescar.

H , at the beginning of a word, was lost in the greater part of the Empire, including southern Gaul: hapja>*apya $>$ Pr. apcha. H between vowels was lost in some words and replaced by kk in others: spëhôn $>$ Pr. espiar, fëhu $>$ Pr. fẹu; jëhan $>^{*}$ yekkire $>$ Pr. gequir. Ht was regularly replaced by tt: slahta $>^{*}$ sclatta $>$ Pr. esclata; but wahta, perhaps borrowed later, became Pr. gaita.

K , in southern Gaul, did not take the palatal pronunciation before front vowels: skërnon $>$ Pr. esquernir, skina $>$ Pr. esquina, skiuhan $>$ Pr. esquivar, ${ }^{*}$ rik-ǐtia $>\operatorname{Pr}$. riquẹza; only the derivatives of Franko (doubtless Latinized early) show palatalization, as * Francia $>$ Pr. Fransa. G, however, seems to have been palatalized: giga $>$ Pr. giga, geisla $>$ Pr. giscle. Before a , in words introduced early, k and g were treated like Latin c and g: kausjan $>$ Pr. cauzir chauzir, gâhi>Pr. gai iai; see § Ir, ( I ).

W was vigorously pronounced, and, through reinforcement of its velar element, came to be sounded gw: warjan $>^{*}$ warire gwarīre $>$ Pr. garir, wërra $>$ * wẹrra gwẹrra $>$ Pr. guẹrra.
57. Greek $\zeta, \theta, \kappa, \phi, \chi$ did not exactly correspond to any Latin consonants: -

Z, whatever may have been its original pronunciation, received in Vulgar Latin the value dy, which then, like any other dy, became y: *zelōsus (from $\zeta \hat{\eta} \lambda o s)=$ dyelosus yelosus $>$ Pr. gelos. The infinitive ending -i乡erv, introduced in such words as $\beta a \pi r i \zeta \epsilon \epsilon v>b a p t i z a ̄ r e=b a p t i(d) y a ̄ r e$, became very common in the form -idyāre -iyāre, and was used to make
new verbs: wërra $+i \zeta \epsilon \iota>$ * werrịdyāre gwerriyāre $>$ Pr. guerrẹiar.
$\theta$, in the popular speech of Rome, was replaced by $t$ : similarly $\chi$ was replaced by c: $\sigma \pi a \theta \dot{\eta}>$ spath $a=$ spata; $\chi$ opó $\dot{\eta}$ $>$ chŏrda $=$ corda.
$\kappa$ was apparently intermediate in sound between Latin c and $g$; it was generally replaced by the former, but sometimes by the latter: кат $\alpha>c a t a, ~ к \nu \beta є \rho v a ̂ v>g u b e r n a r e . ~$
$\phi$, in Greek, was in early times (perhaps until the 4 th century of our era) a strongly explosive p ; it then developed into $f$. In words borrowed by the Romans in the early period it was replaced by p ; in later words it was sounded f : кóגaфos >cŏlăphus = colapus, фaбionos>phaseŏlus faseŏlus.
58. The fate of all these consonants in Provençal depended largely on their position in the word: we must therefore distinguish initial, medial, and final consonants. In a general way, the first tended to remain unchanged, the second to weaken, the third to disappear. Furthermore we must separate single consonants from consonant groups: the latter resisted change better than the former; but a group consisting of dissimilar elements tended to assimilate them.

## INITIAL CONSONANTS.

59. A consonant preceded by a prefix was treated as an initial consonant as long as the character of this preceding syllable was recognized: de-cadĕre $>$ decazer, de-pingĕre $>$ depenher, pre-parāre $>$ preparar, re-cordāre $>$ recordar, repatriāre $>$ repairar, re-pausāre $>$ repausar, se-dūcĕre $>$ sedüire. If, however, the initial syllable ceased to be recognized as a prefix, the following consonant was treated as a medial con-
sonant: prapŏš̌tum $>$ prebost, retŏrta $>$ redorta; so, perhaps, profündum $>$ preon. The rare rebọnre (beside repọnre) $<$ re-pōnëre has the special sense 'to bury'.

## Single Initial Consonants.

60. $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{t}$ underwent no change: ben, dọn, loc, me, nau, pauc, rius, si, tü.
61. For cremetar<*tremitāre, see Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 194. For granolha<* ranücưla, see Körting, ranuculus.
62. $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{c}^{\prime}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{g}^{\prime}, \beta$, y suffered some change. $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{g}$ must be distinguished from $c^{\prime}, g^{\prime}: \S 55, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{G}$.

C, $g$ before o, u remained unchanged: colōrem $>$ colọ, cūra $>$ cüra; gŭla $>$ gola, ğ̆tta $>$ gọta. Before a they changed only in the north and northeast, where they became (perhaps from the 7 th to the 9 th century) respectively ts and dž: campus > camps champs; gaudère > gauzir iauzir.
$\mathrm{C}^{\prime}>$ ts, which just before and during the literary period was reduced to s : cælum $>$ cell sel, civitātem $>$ ciutat ciptat siptat. Eor $\mathrm{g}^{\prime}$, see Y.

Y, comprising Latin $\mathrm{dy}, \mathrm{g}^{\prime}, \mathrm{gy}$, j , and z , became dž (except in Béarn, where it remained $y$ ): diurnālem $>$ iornal (yornal), deō $(r)$ sum $>$ iọs; gělus $>$ gẹls, gentīlem $>$ gentil (yentil), gȳrāre $>$ girar; jam >ia, jŏcum > iọc (yocc), jŭvĕnem $>$ iọve; zelōsus $>$ gelos.

F remained unchanged, except in Béarn and a part of Gascony, where it became h: famem $>$ fam ham, fĭdem $>\mathrm{fẹ}$ he, föcum $>$ fọc hüc, fŏlia $>$ fuelha huelha.
$\beta>v$ (the dentilabial spirant), except in Béarn, Gascony, and parts of Languedoc, where it became b : vernit $>$ ven be, vĕntum $>$ vent bent, věrsus $(\S 55, \mathrm{R})>$ vẹs bęs, vōs $>$ vọs bọs.

1. In a few words $\beta$, owing to Germanic influence, was replaced by $\mathrm{w}>\mathrm{gw}:$ vadum + watan $>$ gua, vastare + wôst $>$ guastar. So vagina $>$ guaina, Vascornia > Gasconha. Cf. gw below.

## Initial Groups.

62. There are three classes of groups: those ending in 1 or r , those ending in w , and those beginning with s : -
( 1 ) $\mathrm{Bl}, \mathrm{br}, \mathrm{cl}, \mathrm{cr}, \mathrm{dr}, \mathrm{gl}, \mathrm{gr}, \mathrm{pl}, \mathrm{pr}$, tr underwent no change: blasphemāre $>$ blasmar, brëvem $>$ brẹu, clarus $>$ clars, crŭcem $>$ crọtz, drappus $>$ draps, glaciem $>$ glatz, gradu $m>$ gra, plēnum $>$ plẹ, precāre $>$ pregar, trans $>$ tras. Gras is from grassus, a fusion of crassus and grossus. For grocs $<$ кро́коз see § $57, \kappa$.
(2) Gw (Germanic w) and kw (Latin qu) were reduced, perhaps in the roth century, to $g$ and $k$, except in the west, where the $\cdot \mathrm{w}$ was retained: wahta $>$ gaita guaita, warjan $>$ garir guarir, wërra $>$ getra guerra, wisa $>$ gisa guisa; quando $>$ can quan, quare $>$ car quar. It should be noted that the $u$ was commonly kept in the spelling (especially before e and i) after it had ceased to be pronounced, $g u$ and $q u$ being regarded merely as symbols for "hard" g and c. For cinc $<$ quinque, see § 87, kw. Sw remained in suavem $>$ suau.
(3) To groups beginning with s a vowel had been prefixed in Vulgar Latin (§55, S); this vowel appears in Provençal as e. Sc' apparently did not occur in any popular word; sl early became scl; the other groups (sc, scl, scr, sp, st, str) remained unchanged, except that in the north and northeast sc $>$ stš before a: scala $>$ escala eschala, schŏla $>$ escola, slahta $>$ * sclatta $>$ esclata, scrībĕre $>$ escriure, spina $>$ espina, stare $>$ estar, strïngĕre $>$ estrẹnher.

## MEDIAL CONSONANTS.

63. (1) It is well to note at the outset that when, through the fall of an unaccented vowel (§ 51), an early Provençal b, $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{d} z, \mathrm{~d} \check{z}, \mathrm{~g}, \mathrm{z}$, or $\check{z}$ was made final or contiguous to a final s, it became voiceless: ŏpus $>$ obus $>$ obs ops, ŏrbum $>$ orbu $>$ orb orp: datum $>$ dadu $>$ dad dat, virǐdem vĭrdem $>$ verde $>$ vẹrd vẹt; frĕtium $>$ prẹdzu $>$ prẹdz preets (written pretz), vöcem $>$ vọdze $>\operatorname{vọdz}$ vọts (written votz); mĕdium $>$ meyu mẹdžu > mèdž mẹtš (written meg or mech); amīcus >amigus $>$ amigs amics, largum $>$ largu $>$ larg larc; rīsum $>$ rizu $>$ riz ris; basium $>$ bažu $>$ baiž baiš (bais). The combination tžs, however, loses either its second or its third element: *gaudios $>$ gautšs $>$ gautš or gauts (both of them often written gaugz); so nŏctes $>$ nuetšs $>$ nuetš or nuets (nuegz). For $a p u d>a b$ ap am an, see § $65, \mathrm{P}, 2$.
(2) Under the same conditions, y became i: vídeo $>$ vẹyo $>$ vẹy vẹi, pĕjus $>$ peyus $>$ peys piẹis.
(3) Under the same conditions, $\delta$, coming from intervocalic d , fell when final, but became t before s : audit $>$ auõi $>$ aữ au; crūdus $>$ cruơus $>$ cruds crüts. So crūdum $>$ crü, fïdem $>$ fẹ, fraudem $>$ frau, gradu $m$ gra, ñ̄dum $>$ ni, nōdum $>$ nọ, pĕdem $>\mathrm{pe}$, sapidum $>$ sabe, tĕpidum $>$ tẹbe; grados $>$ grats, nödus $>$ nọts, $n \bar{u} d u s>$ nüts, $p e \check{d e s}>$ pets. The two sets of forms influenced each other: hence degras, fes, ${ }^{1}$ nis, pes, etc.; crut, grat, not, nut, ${ }^{1}$ etc.
(4) Under the same conditions, $\beta$, coming from $v$ or from intervocalic $b$, became $u$ if preceded by a vowel, but fell if preceded by a consonant: băbit $>$ bẹ $\beta \mathrm{i}>$ be $\beta$ bẹu, vīvit $>$ $\beta \mathrm{i} \beta \mathrm{i}>\beta \underset{i}{i} \beta$ vịu, claves $>\mathrm{cla} \beta \mathrm{es}>$ cla $\beta \mathrm{s}$ claus, vĩvus $>\beta \mathrm{i} \beta \mathrm{us}>$

[^20]$\beta \dot{i} \beta$ s vịus; salvet $>$ sal, salvum $>$ sal, sĕrvit $>$ siẹr, něrvos $>$ nẹrs, salvus $>$ sals, sĕrvus $>$ sets. Sometimes, however, final $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ preceded by a consonant, instead of falling, became f : salvet $>$ salf, salvum $>$ salf, sĕrvit $>$ sięrf, vŏlvit $>$ vọlf; it may be that these are the only regular forms for cons. $+\beta$ when final, and that sal, sier are due to the analogy of sals, siers.
(5) Under the same conditions, final n , if preceded by a vowel, was kept in the extreme west, parts of the north, and all the southeast and east, but fell everywhere else; $n$ before s was generally kept only in the southeast and east: bĕne $>$ be ben, canem $>$ ca can, sŏnum $>$ so son ${ }^{1}$; bŏnus $>$ bos bons, mansiönes $>$ maisos maisons. If the n was preceded by a consonant ( $r$ ), the fall seems to have been even commoner: cŏrnu $>$ cọr cơrn, tơrno $>$ tọr tọrn; diürnus $>$ iọrs iọrns. Provençal n coming from nn never falls: annus $>$ ans.
(6) Under the same conditions, g, representing original c or g , became c after o or u , and after other vowels either became c or was changed to i (which fused with a preceding i): föcum $>$ fọc, lŏcus $>$ lọcs, paucum $>$ pauc, $H \bar{u} g o>\mathrm{Uc}$; $A u$ reliācum $>$ Aurelhac, dīco $>$ dic di, Henrīcum $>$ Enric Enri, *trago $>$ trac trai. The forms with c are the commoner; they have been most persistent in the west.
(7) The vocalization of 1 before $s$ (malus $>$ maus) is a different phenomenon from the foregoing, and will be treated by itself: § $65, \mathrm{~L}$.
(8) An m or an $n$ that becomes contiguous to final $s$ often develops into mp or nt , but oftener (judging from the spellings) does not: nïmis $>n e m s$ nemps, reemos $>$ remps; annos $>$ ans anz, gĕnus $>$ ges gens genz.

[^21](9) Between a liquid or a nasal and a final $s$, $a b$ or a $p$ generally fell, unless supported by the analogy of a form in which the b or p was final: ambos $>$ ams ambs, corrpus $>$ cors, tĕmpus > tems temps; cf. balbs (balb), orbs (orb).

1. The $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{t}$ of the proclitics $a d$, quid, in, aut, et will be treated under Final Consonants.
2. Final ts from any source, in Provence, Limousin, and a part of Languedoc and Gascony, was reduced, during the literary period, to s: amātis > amatz amas, habētis>avetz avẹs, dícit $>$ ditz dis, grandes $>$ granz grans, latus $>$ latz las, prětium $>$ pretz pres. On the other hand, in a part of Limousin (especially in Limoges), and also in Dauphiné, -ts, in the second person plural of verbs, became $t$ : habētis $>$ avet.

## Single Medial Consonants.

65. The single medial consonants will now be considered separately, in alphabetical order: -
$\beta$, coming from b or v , became v ; except in the west and a part of the centre, where, if it remained intervocalic, it changed to b : habētis > avẹtz abẹtz, debēre > devẹ debẹ, faba $>$ fava faba; avārum $>$ avar, astiva $>$ estiva, brëvem $>$ brẹ, ${ }^{1}$ clavem $>$ clau, die Jŏvis $>$ diiọus, lĕvat $>$ lẹva, novĕlla $>$ novela nabera (Gascon), vivus $>$ vius. When the preceding or following vowel was o or u , a $\beta$ before the accent fell in most dialects, being fused with the vowel: abündare $>$ aondar abondar, gübĕrnare $>$ goernar governar, proclitic üb̆̆ $>$ o, prŏbare $>$ proar, sŭbĭnde $>$ soẹn sovẹn sobẹn, trïbūtum $>$ treüt; Lüdovīcus > Lozoics, Provinncia > Proẹnsa Provẹnsa, novĕllum > noel novel, nověmbrem > noembre novembre, pavōnem $>$ paọn, pavörem $>$ paọ (cf. § 55, V ).
[^22]1. The perfect endings $-a v i$ etc., $-i v i$ etc. had lost their v in Latin. For avia, etc., see $\S 87, \beta$.
2. Abans, beside avanz, avan $<a b$ ante, apparently shows the influence of Pr. $a b=a p u d$. Abet $<$ abiëtem $(\S 40,1)$ is unexplained: cf. Italian abete. Abora is a Provençal compound of $a b$ and ora. Trap, beside trau $<$ trabem, is doubtless from the nominative traps <trabs, which seems to have been differentiated in meaning from the V. L. nominative trabis.
3. Brey, grey, ney, beside breu < brěvem, greu <*grĕvem, neu < ni̛vem (cf. § $25,1, e$ ), have been subjected to the attraction of grey $<$ grĕgem, ley $<$ lëgem. Greug is a post-verbal noun from greuiar < *grěviare.
4. Massis $<$ massivus, natiz $=$ natius $<$ natīvus seem to have been influenced by mestis < mixtīcius.
5. Paziment $=$ pavamen owes its z perhaps to the analogy of aizimen.
6. In purely learned words, $b$ and $v$ were written as in Latin: diabol, diluvi.

C, from the 4 th to the 6th century, was voiced to g , and then developed like any other g. See G.

1. After au, apparently, c did not change: *auca (<*avǐca<avis) > auca, pauca $>$ pauca, rauca $>$ rauca, * traucare( ? < * trabucare) $>$ traucar. Cf. $\S 65, \mathrm{P}, 3$.
2. In purely learned words, c remained unchanged: vocal. Alucar aluchar, aluc seem to be learned formations patterned after antelucānus and Low Latin lucānus.
$\chi \mathrm{C}_{2}^{\prime}$ when it became contiguous to a consonant, through the fall of the unaccented vowel of the penult, was reduced to i: * cŏcěre $>$ coire, dīcĕre $>$ diire dire, dīcïtis $>$ ditz, facēre $>$ faire, fačmu $(s)>$ faim, facǐtis $>$ faitz, fēcĕram $>$ fẹira, fēcērunt $>$ fẹiron, gracǐlem $>$ graile. When it remained intervocalic, it was assibilated during the transition period (§55, C); in most of the Provençal territory it became dz , which during the literary period was simplified to $z$; but in some dialects of the south and the northwest it resulted in idz (later iz), an i-glide having developed before the consonant while it was still palatal: aucĕllum >auzęl, jacēre>iazẹ, lĭcēre >lezẹ,
lūcēre $>$ lüzẹr lüzir lüisir, placēre $>$ plazẹ plaizẹ; crücem $>$ crọz crọiz crọis (see $\S \S 6_{3}, 64$ ), dīcere $>$ dízer, dīcit $>$ ditz dis, dūcit $>$ dütz düs, facit $>$ fatz fas, jacet $>$ iatz ias iays, pacem $>$ patz pas pais, placet $>$ platz plas plais, verācem $>$ verais, vōcem $>$ vọtz vọiz.
3. Aucel, beside auzel, perhaps belongs to a dialect in which $\mathrm{c}^{\prime}$ was not voiced after au: cf. C, i. See § $80, \mathrm{Bc}^{\prime}$.
4. Iasser, beside iazer, seems to be due to ias < jacet and iassa <jaceat.
5. For desma deima, see S, I.
6. In purely learned words, $\mathrm{c}^{\prime}>$ ts: actdum $>$ aci.

D , in a part of the west, remained unchanged; elsewhere, during the Vulgar Latin period, it opened into $\partial$, which fell in the irth century and earlier in parts of the north and east, and in the rest of the Provençal territory became $z$ as early as the first part of the 12 th century: audire $>$ auzir auir audir, ${ }^{1}$ audit $>\mathrm{au},{ }^{2}$ cadit $>\mathrm{ca}$, crudēlem $>$ cruzel cruẹl crudel, $f^{\text {ídat }}>$ fia, ${ }^{*}$ gaudo $>$ gau, hŏrrĭda $>$ oreza, hŏrrĭdum $>$ ore, laudo $>$ lau, alauda $>$ lauzẹta laudẹta, rīdat $>$ ria, tradëre $>$ trazir trair tradir, vidère $>$ vezẹ vẹr vedẹ, vĭdet $>$ vẹ. When $\partial$ became contiguous to a following consonant (except final s), it changed to i: cupı̈ditātem $>$ cobeitat, divīdëre $>$ divire, ${ }^{8}$ traditōrem $>$ traidor. ${ }^{4}$
I. Crey, beside cre<crēdo, follows dei<dèbeo, vei<video. Mercey, beside merce $<$ mercēdem, shows the influence of grey $<$ grĕgem, lei $<$ lēgem, and perhaps French fei<fidem. Cf. $\beta$, (3).
2. Grau $=$ gra $<$ gradum, niu $=n i<n i d u m$ belong to the Catalan dialect, in which $\delta$ fell before the 8th century : gradum $>$ građu $>$ gra-u $>$ grau, the u being preserved through combining into a diphthong with the a .

[^23]3. In purely learned words, d remained: odi $<\delta$ dium.

F is very rare (cf. § 59). The few examples appear to show that f (presumably in the 6th century or earlier) became $\beta$, and then developed like any other $\beta$ (see $\beta$ ): Stëphănum $>$ Esteve, co $(n)$ fortāre? > * coßortar $>{ }^{*}$ coortar $>$ conortar (through the common use of the double forms, con-, co-), gryphum $>$ griu, raphănum $>$ rave rafe, * refusāre $>$ rehusar refusar, *prefündum (=pro-)> preọn. Nevertheless, cofin cơphĭnum, defors < de föris, grifo, profieg <profĕctum, rafe, would seem to indicate that in some words, possibly less popular at the outset, $f$ was retained.

1. In purely learned words, $\mathbf{f}$ was kept : antifona, Caifas, philozophia.孔G, representing original $c$ and $g$, had a varied development. ${ }^{1}$ For the fall of $g$ in some words in Vulgar Latin, see § $55, \mathrm{G}$.
(i) Before $a, g$ remained in the greater part of the territory, but in the north and east it early became $y$; and this y was generally retained in the eastern dialects (often fusing with a preceding i), while in most of the northern it developed into dž (cf. Y): amīca> amiga amiia amia, dīcam $>$ diga dia, mīca>miga miia mia, ${ }^{2}$ pacāre $>$ pagar paiar, precāre $>$ pregar preiar; castigāre $>$ castigar castiar, legālem $>$ leial leyal lial, ligāmen $>$ liam, lïgātum $>$ legat liat, plaga $>$ plaga plaia, regālem $>$ reial, rūga $>$ rüa.
(2) Before $o$ and $u$ (ü), $g$ was preserved, except in a few words which (doubtless in Vulgar Latin times) lost it either in all or in many dialects: acūtum $>$ agüt, secündum $>$ segọn, secūrus $>$ segürs; * $a(u)$ gürium $>$ agür aür, $a(u)$ güstum $>$

[^24]agọst ${ }^{1}$ ahọst, proclitic ĕgo $>$ ẹu, ${ }^{*}$ fagŏttum $>$ fagọt, figūra $>$ figüra, Hugōnem $>$ Ugo. For a $g$ that becomes final or contiguous to final s, see $\S 6_{3},(6):$ amicus $>$ amics amis, Auri$\bar{a} c u m>$ Auriac, cŏcum $(=$ cŏquum $)>$ cọc, jŏcus $>$ iọcs, Ludovīcum $>$ Lozoic Lozoi, prěco > prẹc; castīgo > chastic chasti.
(3) Between the last two vowels of a proparoxytone, g, early in the Provençal period, became y, which developed into dž before the literary epoch; cf. § 49, (4): clërĭcum $>$ clẹge, ${ }^{*}$ coratĭcum $>$ coratge, domĭnĭcum $>$ dimẹnge, manĭca $>$ mania, mĕdücum $>$ mege, mŏnăchum $>$ monge, ** paratücum $>$ paratge, viatǐcum $>$ viatie. In some dialects, however, the vowel of the penult, after liquids and nasals, fell too early for the $g$ to become $y$ : clergue, ${ }^{2}$ dimergue, mongue.

1. Amiu, ckastiu belong to the dialect of Forez; so perhaps $f a u<f a$ gum, preu<prěco. These forms indicate a very early fall of the $g$ in the dialect to which they belong. Cf. § $5 \mathrm{I}, 3$.
2. In purely learned words, Latin g remains unchanged : paganōrum $>$ paganor.
$\mathrm{G}^{\prime}$ became y during the Vulgar Latin period (§ $55, \mathrm{G}$ ). See Y.
I. In purely learned words the letter $g$ was retained, but it was doubtless pronounced dž: astrologia.

L remained: colōrem $>$ colọ, male $>$ mal, * volēre ( $=$ velle) $>$ voler. Before final s, l became u in most dialects, in some as early as the roth century: malos $>$ maus, talis $>$ taus; $l$ was written, however, long after 1 had been vocalized. Under the influence of forms in which $-l s>-u s$, final 1 became $u$ in the southwest and in some other regions: Aprilem $>$ abriu. Cf. § 74, (2).

[^25]1. For Gascon $1>\mathrm{r}$, see $\S 10$.
2. Orifan, beside olifan <elephantem, is probably French.
$L^{\prime}$ will be considered, as ly, under Groups, § 73, Ly.
M remained: amāre $>$ amar, hŏmo $>$ om, timōrem $>$ temọr.
3. Occasionally final -am rhymes with -an (afan: fam, portam: avan); this would seem to indicate an indistinct pronunciation of the final nasal in some dialects. Cf. aven $=$ avem $<$ habèmu(s) in the Nobla Leyczon. Cf. § 167, 2.
N remained: bŏnas $>$ bonas, donāre $>$ donar, lūna $>$ lüna. For n final or contiguous to final s , see $\S 6_{3}$, (5): finis $>$ fis fins, panem $>$ pa pan.
4. In canorgue, dimergue, morgue, beside canonge, dimenge, monge, the r may be explained by the analogy of clergue.
5. Menhs meins, beside regular mens < minus, show the influence of the alternative forms genhs geins and gens from ingěnium (see § 73, Ny).
6. Iassey ( = iasse, the latter part of which may be from exin $=$ exinde), tey ( $=$ te $<$ těnet), used by Marcabru, are doubtless due either to a mistaken imitation of conventional borderland forms (see $\S 25,3$ ) or to the analogy of crei $=$ cre $<$ crēdo (crei itself being due to the analogy of dei $<$ dēbeo, vei <vĩdeo).
$\mathrm{N}^{\prime}$ will be considered, as ny, under Groups, § 73, Ny.
P , from the $4^{\text {th }}$ to the 6th century, was voiced to b : capillum > cabẹl, rīpa > riba, * sapēre ( = sapëre) $>$ sabẹ, trepalium $>$ trebalh; capit $>$ cap (§ 63), sapis $>$ saps.
7. In some borderland dialects $\mathrm{p}>\mathrm{v}$, as in French: saver. Evescat, evesque, beside bisbat, bisbe, are French.
8. Apud, used as a proclitic, became for some reason in Vulgar Latin *apu, which developed regularly into *abu and, after the fall of intertonic vowels, $a b$. This $a b$ assimilated its b more or less to a following consonant, becoming $a p$ before voiceless consonants, $a m$ before nasals; $a m$, used before dentals, became an: hence we have four forms, $a b, a p, a m, a n$. $A m b$ seems to be a fusion of $a m$ and $a b$; when used before a consonant with which mb did not readily combine, it expanded into ambe. See Elise Richter, Zs., XXVI, 532.
9. In some dialects, apparently, p was not voiced after au: sapuěrunt * sapwèrunt * saupěrunt > saubron saupron. Cf. § 65, C, I.
10. In purely learned words, p remains: epifania.

R remained: amāra>amara, durāre $>$ dürar, ërat $>$ èra. Final rs was reduced to $s$, in most dialects, during and after the literary period: priöres $>$ priors prios (Girart); the reduction apparently began in Limousin as early as the 12 th century (Bertran de Born rhymes iọs and flors).

1. Final $r$ began to fall in many dialects in the 14th century. At present it has disappeared all through the south and west: amörem $>$ amou, förem $>$ flou.
2. In some dialects (especially those of Gard and Hérault) intervocalic r and z were confused, probably during the literary period: gyrāre $>$ girar gisar; conversely audīre $>$ auzir aurir. Cf. Revue des langues romanes, XL, 49, 121.

S was voiced to $z$, probably from the 4 th to the 6th century: pausa $>$ pausa, presĕntem $>$ presen; rīsum $>$ ris (§63).

1. An s that became contiguous to n was changed, in a few dialects, to r : almosna almorna, disnar dirnar. In modern Limousin and some of the dialects of Dauphiné, Languedoc, and Gascony, s has disappeared before nasals : asne ane, caresma carema, disnar dinar (so blasmar blamar, desma dema); the fall began during the literary period. S before a consonant in many of the modern dialects, and final s in some, has become i: asne aine, caresma careima (so perhaps desma deima, pruesme prueime); some traces of this change occur in texts of the literary period. Cf. Zs., XXIII, 413. Isla, in Limousin, became ilha (perhaps through iyla): cf. Zs., XXIII, 4I4. Cf. § 78.
2. In some southeastern dialects intervocalic $\mathbf{z}$ after au has changed to v : causa cauva (so auzir auvir) ; possibly the auvent of the Boeci, v. 23, is to be connected with this.

T, from the 4 th to the 6th century, was voiced to d: amāta $>$ amada, natālis $>$ nadals, servitōrem $>$ servidọ; habētis $>$ avẹtz aves aveet $(\$ \S 63,64)$, latus $>$ latz las, natum $>$ nat. For a $t$ which became contiguous to r (amātor $>$ amaire), see § $5^{2}$, ( I , and § 70 , Tr.

1. In some dialects of the south and southeast, final $t$ fell shortly after the literary period: amātum > amat ama.
2. Tötus, in Gaul, became töttus as early as the 4 th century : hence Pr. tota totas. For meteis < met-ïpse see § 131, (2).
3. Espaza (beside espada) < spatha, was perhaps influenced in its pronunciation by the spelling of the Latin word. Ez, coming from et before a vowel, shows the influence of $a z(<a d+$ vowel $)$ and quez $\left(<q u{ }^{2} d+\right.$ vowel). Grazal, 'grail', is perhaps a cross between * cratella $<$ crater and gradale, 'service-book'; so grazalet. Grazir grazire (cf. agradar) is perhaps altered from an earlier *grazar<*gratiare. Mezeis $<m e t-$ ipse, mezesmes, meesmes (beside medesmes) <*met-ipsimus have been subjected to the analogy of $e z<e t$ and quez<qǔd or of id ïpsum: §131, (2).
4. Appoestat must be French.
5. Calabre<* catabolum seems to have been assimilated to Calabria.
6. In purely learned words, $t$ remains: eternal.

W will be considered, as gw, under Groups, § $72, \beta w$.
X is a symbol for ks: see Groups, § 79, Ks.
K , representing Latin $\mathrm{dy}, \mathrm{g}^{\prime}, \mathrm{gy}$, j, and z (cf. § $55, \mathrm{G}, \mathrm{Y}$; $\S 57, Z$ ) had a varied development.
( 1 ) When it became contiguous to a following consonant (§§ 45, 49), it changed to i: adjutāre $>$ ayudāre $>$ ay'dar $>$ aidar, medietātem $>$ meitat; iogitāre $>$ cüidar, frigěre $>$ frire, lĕğ̌re > leyre, propagz̆nem > probaina, rğǧ̆da > rẹida, * tragĕre $>$ traire; bajülus $>$ bailes.
(2) When it remained intervocalic, it became dž in most of the territory, but in the northeast and parts of the north it was not changed: audiam $>$ auia, in-ŏdiare $>$ enoiar, invĭdia $>$ envẹia, invídiōsus $>$ enveiọs enveyọs, * gladia $>$ glaya, mediānum $>$ meian, * pödiäre $>$ poiar, radiāre $>$ raiar, sordĭdior $>$ sordẹier, v̌̌deat $>$ vẹia; fragǐlem $>$ fragel; * exagiāre $>$ assatiar essaiar essayar, corrigia $>$ correia corrẹya, fagea $>$ faia faya, regiōnem $>$ reiọ; die Jŏvis $>$ diious, major $>$ maier, pĕjor $>$ pieier, pejörem $>$ peior, trŏja $>$ troia; baptizāre $>$ bateiar. For
a dž or a $y$ that became final or contiguous to final $s$, see § 63 , (1), (2): audio $>$ auch, in ödio $>$ enueg (plural enuetz enueg) enọi, gaudium $>$ gauch, gladium $>$ glai, médium $>$ meg mẹi, hŏdie $>$ oi, pŏdium $>$ pueg pọi, radium $>$ rai; fügit $>$ füg füi, grëgem $>$ grẹy, lēgem $>$ lẹg ( pl . lẹitz) lẹi, lĕgit $>$ liẹg, magis mais, ${ }^{1}$ rēgem $>$ rẹi, ${ }^{*}$ tragit $>$ trai; exagium $>$ essai; pĕjus $>$ piẹis.
(3) Before accented e or i, y disappeared (doubtless in Vulgar Latin: § 55, G), except in some western dialects, where it became dž: vagīna $>$ guaïna, * legire ( $=$ lĕgĕre $)>$ legir, ${ }^{2}$ maǧ̌ster $>$ maẹstre maiestre magẹstre, ${ }^{*} \operatorname{pag}$ ē $(n)$ sis $>$ paes pagẹ, regina $>$ reïna, sagĭtta $>$ saẹta saiẹta sageta.

1. Detz ditz<digitus are irregular and unexplained. The word is irregular in some other Romance languages, notably in Italian. Cf. Gröber's Grundriss, I, p. 507.
2. Glavi, beside glai (and learned glazi)<gladium, is supposed by some to show the influence of Celtic cládibo. Cf. Körting; also H. Schuchardt, Zs., XXV, 345 .
3. Messér seems to be a contraction (due to proclitic use) of *messeyer $=m e s, ' m y ',+*$ seyer $?<*$ sĕyor $=$ sënior (cf. A. Lindström, L'analogie dans la déclinaison des substantifs latins en Gaule, 1897-8, pp. 292-3).
4. In purely learned words, $d i, g, g i, z$ are retained, the $g$ being pronourced presumably as dž, the $z$ as $z$ : odi, fragil, regio, canonizar.

## Medial Groups.

66. Medial groups may be conveniently classified as follows: - A. Double Consonants (1); B. Groups of Dissimilar Consonants: groups ending in 1 (2), groups ending in $\mathbf{r}$ (3), groups ending in $w(4)$, groups ending in $y(5)$, groups beginning with $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}$, or s and not ending in $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{r}$, w, or y

[^26](6), all other groups (7). They will be treated in the order indicated. ${ }^{1}$

1. It should be noted that the prefixes $a d$-, sub-regularly assimilate their d or b to the following consonant: *ad-rīpāre > arribar, sub-venire $>$ sovenir. Sosrire, sosterrar, sostraire show a substitution of prefix, due, no doubt, to the analogy of sospirar, sostener.

## I. Double Consonants.

67. In general, the double consonants became single, in the 9th or roth century (perhaps earlier before the accent), but underwent no other change save those described in $\S \S 63$, 64: abbätem $>$ abat, sĭccum $>\mathrm{sec}$, rĕddo $>$ ret, affībulāre $>$ afiblar, aggregāre > agregar, flamma> flama, pinnna> pẹa, cappa $>$ capa, passum $>$ pas, ${ }^{2}$ mŭttum $>$ mọt, advenīre *avvenire $>$ avenir.
(i) Cc before a, in the east and northeast, became ts ; elsewhere, $c$; bŭcca $>$ bọca bọcha, vacca $>$ vaca vacha.
(2) Ll , in some southern dialects, became $\mathrm{l}^{\prime}$; elsewhere, 1 : capillum $>$ cabẹl cabẹlh, grȳllum $>$ gril grilh, mantěllum $>$ mantel mantęlh, villänus $>$ vilas vilhas. It is possible, however, that -lli regularly became $l^{\prime}$ in Limousin, while $l l$ before other vowels was not palatalized: caballum $>$ caval, caballi $>$ cavalh; îllī>ilh, îllōs>ẹls; this would account in part for the frequent occurrence of $l h$ in the poems. For final 1 ls and 1 , see § $6_{5}$, L: illlos $>$ els ẹus, vallem $>$ val vau. For Gascon $1>\mathrm{r}$, see § 10: appĕllat $>$ apela apera.
(3) Rr, when intervocalic, seems generally to have been distinguished from r during the literary period and later: cŭr-

[^27]rĕre $>$ cọrre, * corrüptiāre $>$ corrossar, errāre $>$ errar, tĕrra $>$ terra. Occasionally, however, rr is found in rhyme with r .

## 2. Groups Ending in L.

68. The groups of two consonants will be treated in alphabetical order. It will be seen that $\mathrm{bl}, \mathrm{rl}$, sl remained unchanged; ml developed a glide consonant between its two members; $\mathrm{pl}, \mathrm{tl}, \beta \mathrm{l}$ and yl respectively voiced, assimilated, and vocalized their first element; while $\mathrm{cl}, \mathrm{gl}$ were fused into $l^{\prime}$. For an explanation of this last phenomenon, see § 79.
$\mathrm{Bl}>\mathrm{bl}$ : nĕbŭla $>$ nẹbla, ${ }^{*}$ oblītāre $>$ oblidar, sabulōnem $>$ sablon. ${ }^{1}$
$\dot{f}_{\beta 1}>$ ul: fabŭla *faßla $>$ faula, sibilāre *sißläre $>$ siular, tabŭla * ta $\beta l a>$ taula.
$\mathrm{Cl}>\mathrm{l}^{\prime}:$ genŭcŭlum $>$ genọlh, ŏcŭlum $>$ olh, sǐtŭla ${ }^{*}$ sicla ${ }^{2}>$ sẹlha, větưla věcla ${ }^{2}>$ vẹlha. In learned words we find $\mathrm{gl}, \mathrm{cl}$ : *e $e(c)$ clĕsia $>$ glẹiza, joculārem $>$ ioglar, sacŭlum $>$ segle sẹcle. + $\mathrm{C}^{\prime} 1>$ il: gracĭlem $>$ graile .
$\mathrm{Dl}>\mathrm{dl}$, which during the literary period became 11 and then 1: mŏdŭlum $>$ * modle molle.
$\chi_{\mathrm{Gl}}^{\mathrm{Cl}}>\mathrm{l}^{\prime}:$ vĭg $(\check{i})$ lat $>$ vẹlha. Teula <tēgŭla is irregular: cf. Archivio glottologico italiano, XIII, 439, 459.
W $\mathrm{Ml}>\mathrm{mbl}$ : simūlāre $>$ semblar, trěmŭlat $>$ trembla. In sembrar we find an $\mathrm{r}<1$ due perhaps to the analogy of membrar <memorāre.
X $\mathrm{Pl}>\mathrm{bl}$ : cōpŭla $>$ cọbla, düplum $>$ doble. Learned words have pl : duplicar.
$\mathrm{Rl}>\mathrm{rl}:$ Carŏlus $>$ Carles, hōrolŏgium $>$ orlọi, *paraulare $>$ parlar.

[^28]$\mathrm{Sl}>$ sl: ī $n$ ) süla> isla. For ilha, see § $65, \mathrm{~S}, \mathrm{r}$.
$\mathrm{Tl}>\mathrm{tl}$, which during the literary period became 1 l and then 1: rŏtülum $>$ rotle rolle, spathüla $>$ espatla espalla espala. In really popular words tl had become cl in Vulgar Latin. ${ }^{1}$

Yl>il: bajülus > bailes. Cf. § 65, Y, (1).
69. A group of three consonants remained unchanged, except that double consonants became single: ambuläre $>$ amblar, implēre >emplir, avŭncŭlus > avọncles, cĭrcŭlus > cercles, mascǔlus > mascles, * afflammāre >aflamar, inflāre > enflar, üngŭla > ongla, emplastrum $>$ emplastre.

1. Selcle, beside cercle, seems to show an assimilation of the $r$ to the 1 of the next syllable. Empastre, beside emplastre, has been influenced by pasta. Emblar is probably from V. L. *imbolare = involare.

## 3. Groups Ending in R.

70. The groups of two consonants will be treated in alphabetical order. It will be seen that br, gr, lr, nr generally remained unchanged; mr , sr , zr (and sometimes $\mathrm{lr}, \mathrm{nr}$ ) developed a glide consonant; $\underset{\sim}{c r}$, pr voiced, and $\beta \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{c}^{\prime} \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{dr}, \mathrm{tr}, \mathrm{yr}$ vocalized their first element.
$\mathrm{Br}>\mathrm{br}$ : fabrum $>$ fabre, fëbrem $>$ fẹbre, $l \bar{\imath} b(\breve{e})$ rum $>$ libre.
$\beta \mathrm{r}>$ ur: bĭbĕre $>$ bẹure, débēr' hábẹo $>$ de $\beta$ ' r -áyo $>$ deurái, faber $>$ faure; ${ }^{2}$ * mŏvĕre $(=$ mŏvēre $)>$ moure, plŏvĕre $>$ ploure. Y $\mathrm{Cr}>\mathrm{gr}$ : acrem $>$ agre, lacrima $>$ lagrema, lŭcrum $>$ lọgre, macrum $>$ magre, sacrāre $>$ sagrar, sŏcrum $>$ sogre. ${ }^{8}$ In late learned words we find cr: secret.
A ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ r $>$ ir: cŏcĕre $>$ coire, dīcēre $>$ dire, dūcere $>$ düire, facĕre $>$ faire. Cf. § 49, ( I ).
$\mathrm{Dr}>\not \subset \mathrm{r}>$ ir: divīdëre $>$ devire, quadrum $>$ caire, vídēr' há-

[^29]beo $>$ veđ'r-áyo $>$ veirái. After au, apparently, $\partial$ simply disappeared: claudére $>$ claure. Late learned words have dr: quadrupedi.

Gr , in popular words, was reduced to r in Vulgar Latin in parts of the Empire: $f r a(g) r a \overline{r e}>^{*}$ frarar * flarar flazar, inté $(g)$ rum $>$ enter entier, $n \grave{\imath}(g)$ rum $>$ nẹr niẹ, ${ }^{1}$ pere $(g)$ rinum $>$ peleri, $p^{\check{\imath}}(g)$ ritia $>$ pereca; these forms occur in Gascony, Rouergue, and Limousin, but forms with gr are found in the same region. Elsewhere, in these same words, and everywhere, in more bookish words, gr remained in Vulgar Latin; this gr was kept in most of the Provençal territory, but was changed to ir in Dauphiné, Auvergne, and Languedoc: * degrắdum $>$ degra, fragrāre $>$ flairar, integrāre $>$ enteirar, intĕg. rum $>$ entẹgre entẹir, ${ }^{2}$ ň̆grēscēre $>$ negrezir, nı̆grum $>$ nẹgre nẹir, ${ }^{2}$ peregrīnum $>$ pelegri, pı̆grǐtia $>$ pigrẹza. Purely learned words have gr everywhere: agricultura.

G'r: see Yr.
Lr usually remained unaltered, but in some dialects became $\mathrm{ldr}^{3}$ : válēr' hábeeo $>$ valrai valdrai, * vólēr' hábeo $>$ volrai voldrai.
$\nmid \mathrm{Mr}>\mathrm{mbr}:$ camĕra $>$ cambra, memorāre $>$ membrar, nŭmĕfum $>$ nọmbre.

Nr usually remained unaltered, but in some dialects became ndr $^{8}$ : cinnĕrem $>$ cẹnre cẹndre, dīe Vënĕris $>$ divenres divendres, in-ǧ̌nerāre > engenrar, Henrīcum $>$ Enric, expōnĕre $>$ espọnre espondre, *gĕnĕrem $(=$ gĕnus $)>$ genre, gĕnĕrum $>$ genre gendre,

[^30]honorāre > onrar ondrar, prëndĕre $>$ penre, tenēr' habeo > tenrai tendrai, venīr' habeo $>$ venrai vendrai.

X
$\operatorname{Pr}>\mathrm{br}:$ capra $>$ cabra, cŭperāre $>$ cobrar, erïpĕre $>$ erẹbre, opera $>$ obra, pauper $>$ paubre, * pı̈perāta $>$ pebrada, recüpĕre $>$ recebre, sŭperāre $>$ sobrar, süper $>$ sọbre. Purely learned words have pr: caprin. It is uncertain whether paupre (beside the usual paubre) is a Latinism or represents some dialect in which au prevented voicing.
$\nmid \mathrm{Sr}>\operatorname{str}:$ * ĕssĕre ( $=$ ěsse) $>$ ęstre. For ęsser, see § 49, (2).
$f \mathrm{Tr}>\mathrm{dr}>\partial \mathrm{r}>\mathrm{ir}:$ amātor $>$ amaire, fratrem $>$ fraire, latro $>$ laire, mater $>$ maire, ŭtĕrem $>$ ọire, pĕtra $>$ pẹira, Pĕtrus $>$ Peires, petrōnem $>$ peirọ, petrōsus $>$ peirọs, pre $(s)$ by̆tērum (Einf., § 140) $>$ prevẹire, servītor $>$ servire, vĭtrum $>$ vẹire. Learned words have dr and tr : *poenĭtĕre $>$ penedre (penedir), impetrāre >impetrar.
$+\mathrm{Yr}>$ ir: frīgĕre $>$ frire, lĕgĕre $>$ lȩyre .
$\nmid \mathrm{Zr}>\mathrm{zdr}:$ mīsĕrunt + * mǐssĕrunt $>$ * mẹzron mẹsdron.

1. Redebre (beside rezemér) <redimere has apparently been influenced by recebre. "The Burgundian sor for sobre comes from the prefix suir-(sür-rī̀ère, etc.) Perri<* pètrīnum is probably French.
2. A group of three consonants nearly always remained unchanged, except that double consonants became single: ümbra> ombra, arbŏrem $>$ arbre, sepülcrum $>$ sepulcre, * canc(e)rōsus $>$ cancrọs, * addīrēctum $>$ adrẹit, fündëre $>$ fọndre, ardëre $>$ ardre, * offerīre $>$ offrir, * Hungaría $>$ Ongria, rümpĕre $>$ rọmpre, apprĕssum $>$ aprees, asprum $>$ aspre, ültra $>$ oltra, intrāre $>$ entrar, $m o(n)$ strāre $>$ mostrar, mïttëre $>$ mẹtre. $\mathrm{L} \beta \mathrm{r}$ and $\mathrm{rg}^{\prime} \mathrm{r}$, however, regularly became ldr and rdr , and llr became ldr to the same extent as lr (q. v.): absŏlvĕre $>$ absoldre (absolvre is probably a Latinism), pŭlvĕrem $>$ poldre; * dē-ēr? gëre > dẹrdre; tollĕre > tolre toldre. Rmr became rbr
in marmor $>$ marbre (also marme). Prendre often became penre (perhaps to distinguish it from pendre<pĕndĕre) through the analogy of genre gendre, etc.; the first $r$ having been lost by dissimilation.
3. The four-consonant group sbtr is reduced to str in prestre $<$ prěsby̆ter. Prever is perhaps a proclitic syncopation of a V. L. *preßiter. Cf. § 78, 1 .
4. Groups Ending in W.
5. This class includes not only Latin $g u, q u$, but all combinations of consonant $+\mathrm{u}, \mathrm{cf} . \S 40$, (2). A w thus evolved seems to have developed like Germanic w (cf. § 56, W): it became gw (assimilating the preceding consonant, unless that consonant was a liquid or a nasal), and then was reduced, before the literary period, to g , cf. § 62, (2). Pw, however, had a quite different history, owing, on the one hand, to the affinity of its two labial elements, and, on the other, to the stability of the voiceless stop, which prevented the assimilation that we find in $\beta w>w w$.
I. G. Körting (Zs., XXII, 258) would explain through the analogy of the perfects in -cui all other perfect forms which in Provençal have $g$ and c corresponding to Latin $-u i$ etc.

* $\beta \mathrm{w}>\mathrm{ww}>\mathrm{gw}>\mathrm{g}:$ habuĭssem $>$ aguẹs, dēbuit $>\operatorname{decc}\left(\S 6_{3}\right)$; co (g) nōvuit (cf. Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 357) > conoc, * crevuĭstī>creguist, * movǔ̆sset>moguẹs, *plövuit $>$ ploc. We seem to have the same combination in Germanic treuwa> tregua trega (treva is probably French).

1. The diphthong of aic $=$ habui is probably not a phonetic development. The first and third persons of the preterit, aic and $a c(<h a b u i t)$, have been differentiated after the pattern of the present - ai and $a$.
$\nmid \mathrm{Dw}>\mathrm{gw}>\mathrm{g}$ : * sĕduit $>$ sec.
2. Vezoa<vidua must be an early learned word: veuva is doubtless French.

xKKw $>$ gw $>$ g: antīqua $>$ antiga, équa $>$ ega, aquālem $>$ egal (engal has received through a mistake in etymology the prefix en- or $e-<$ in-), nŏcuit > nọc, placuĭstī>plaguist, * sëquĕre ( $=$ sëqui) $>$ segre, * sequīre $>$ seguir, tacǔ̌ssem $>$ tagues.
I. Several words show a different development: cf. Ltblt., XXIV, 335; Zs., XXVIII, 381. In aqua (or acqua) and aquila (or *acquilia) the first consonant became, for some reason, a spirant, which later changed to i : axwa $>$ aiwa $>$ aigua aiga, áxwila > áiwila > áigwila $>$ aigla. So aiglentina. These same words show irregularities in other languages. Perhaps the dialect form eigal (Auvergne, Arles) for egal is to be explained in the same way; but the $e i$ here may be analogical.
2. In several words kw was reduced to c (or c') in Vulgar Latin: coquĕre ( + cơcus) $>$ cöcëre $>$ cọzer, törquēre *tơrquĕre ( + *törco *törcunt) $>$ *törcëre > torser. Cf. § 55, W.
千Lw > lgw > lg: caluit > calc, * toluĭstī> tolguist, valuǐssem $>$ valguẹs, vŏ́luĕrunt $(\S 16,2)>$ volgron.
$f^{\mathrm{Nw}}, \mathrm{ngw}, \mathrm{nkw}>\mathrm{ngw}>\mathrm{ng}$ : tënuit $>$ tẹnc, * venuĭsset $>$ vengues; sanguem $>$ sanc; cinque ( $=$ quinque) $>$ cinc.
I. Tẹuns <tënuis is probably a learned word; the transposition of $u$ and n may have been due originally to a misreading of the letters. Ianuer, manual, etc. are learned. Maneira is apparently from a Vulgar Latin *man(u)aria from manuarius. For enquerre < inquerëre, see § 59.
2. Exstïnguěre ( + *exstïngo *exstïngunt $)>$ *estïngĕre $>$ estẹnher.
$+\mathrm{Pw}>\mathrm{upw}>\mathrm{up}>\mathrm{ub}:$ sapuĭsset $>$ saubẹs, recïpuit $>$ receup.
I. Saupes apparently belongs to a dialect in which au prevented voicing. Cf. § $65, \mathrm{P}, 3$.
$\dagger$ Rw $>\mathrm{rgw}>\mathrm{rg}$ : mĕruit $>$ męrc.
Sw seems to have been reduced early to $s$ in consuetūdīnem * costūmen $>$ costüm (costüma). Cōnsŭo apparently became * cōsio, whence an infinitive * cōsĕre or * cosīre (Pr. cǫzer, cosir).
$\dagger^{\mathrm{Tw}}>\mathrm{dw}>\mathrm{gw}>\mathrm{g}:$ pŏtuit $>$ poc.

1. Ba(t)tuo, qua(t)tuor were reduced to batto, *quattor in Vulgar Latin: Pr. bat, quatre.

## 5. Groups Ending in Y.

73. This class contains: ist, combinations of consonant + $\mathrm{y}<\mathrm{e}$ or i , cf. § $40,(2) ; 2 \mathrm{~d}$, consonant $+\mathrm{g}^{\prime}>\mathrm{y}(\S 55, G)$, the $\mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ having been in some cases always contiguous to the preceding consonant, in others originally separated from it by a vowel; 3 d , consonant $+\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{y}$, the g representing an original c or $g$ between the last two vowels of a proparoxytone, cf. § 65 , G, (3). It does not include dy and gy, which early became y: see § 65, Y. The groups will be considered in alphabetical order:-

Bry $>$ bry in ebriācum $>$ ebriac (iure is probably French).
$\beta \mathrm{y}$ was early reduced to y in habeo habeam etc. and dēbeo dēbeam etc., partly, no doubt, through the proclitic use of these words, partly under the influence of audio $>^{*}$ auyo audiam $>^{*}$ auya and video $>^{*}$ veyo vǐdeam $>^{*}$ veya; this y , like any other medial y ( $\S 65, Y$ ), became dž or remained y: ai (for some reason there seems to have been no form *ach), aia; dẹi dẹch, dẹia. Aside from these words, $\beta y>u d z ̌$ and uy apparently in the north; elsewhere uy, by, vy - uy prevailing in the west, by and vy in the south and east. When the $y$ became final, it changed to $i$, which, after a consonant, was syllabic. Ex.: abbrĕviat $>$ abrẹuia, * aggrěviat $>$ agrẹuia, * allĕviat > alẹuia, aviŏlum>aviọl aiọl, cavěa $>$ gabia cauia, labia $>$ lavia-s, * leviarius $>$ leugięrs, * rabiam ( $=$ rabiem ) $>$ rabia rauia, ${ }^{1}{ }^{*}$ rabiāre $>$ rabiar, rabiōsus $>$ rabiọs rauiọs, rŭ.beum $>$ rọg rọi, ${ }^{2}{ }^{*}$ sabium $>$ savi sabi, atavia $>$ tavia, vidŭvium $>$ vezọig bedọi. ${ }^{2}$ In purely learned words, Latin $b i$, vi, etc., are kept: abiurament, fluvial.

Cc'y: see C'y.

[^31]$\not \subset \mathrm{Cly}>\mathrm{l}^{\prime}$ : coclearium $>$ cuilhię.
$\nmid$ Cty $>$ is: factiōnem $>$ faisso, lectiōnem $>$ leisso, suspectiōnem
$>$ sospeisso. In purely learned words we find the spellings cti, cci, which doubtless indicate ktsy or ksy: electio, accio. Cf. Ssy.
f C'y, cc'y, kwy $>$ ts; this ts, when it remained medial, was reduced, before and during the literary period, to s: bracchia brassa, bracchium $>$ bratz bras (§64), faciam $>$ faza fassa, faciem $>$ fatz fas, glaciem $>$ glatz glas ${ }^{1}$, laqueāre $>$ lassar, laqueum $>$ latz las, * pĕcia $>$ pessa, placeam $>$ plassa. Learned words have $z i$ and $c i$, doubtless pronounced at first dzi, tsi, later zi, si (cf. A. Horning, Zs., XXIV, 545; XXV, 736): iuzizi iudici, edifici, Grecia. Cf. Pty.
$+\mathrm{D}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{dž}: j u ̄ d i ̌ c o>$ iütge, mĕdı̆cum $>$ mege, * sĕď̌cum $>$ sẹie $^{2}$. Dy: see § $55, \mathrm{Y}$ and § $65, \mathrm{Y}$.
Gdy: see § 8o, Gd.
Gy: see § $55, \mathrm{Y}$ and § $65, \mathrm{Y}$.
Kwy: see Cy.

+ Lc'y $>$ lts $>$ uts $>$ us: calceāre $>$ caussar. Cf. Lty. See § 74, (2).

Нg' apparently became ldz udz uz in *fülgĕrem (=fŭlgur) $>$ fouzer.
$\mathrm{Ll}-\mathrm{g}^{\prime}>\mathrm{l}^{\prime}$ in cŏlľ̆git $>$ cuẹlh. Cf. Ly.
Lly: see Ly.
$\psi^{\text {Lny }}>\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ : balneum $>$ banh.
tLty $>$ lts $>$ uts $>$ us: *altiāre $>$ auçar aussar. Cf. Lc'y. See § 74, (2).

[^32]Lvy $>$ lby $>$ uby in salvia $>$ saubia (Gascon).
Ly, lly $>\mathrm{l}^{\prime}$ : consǐlium $>$ cosselh, fillium $>$ filh, fïlia $>$ filha, nūllī + vowel $>$ nülh. Learned words have li: familiarmens. Lili liri lire <lilium are doubtless learned; lis is French.

Mby > mby, mdž, and ndž; mdž being the usual form in the literary language: cambiāre $>$ camiar caniar cambiar.

Mmy > my, mdž, and ndž: commeātus>comiatz coniatz.
Mny $>\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ in Limousin and in the extreme east and southwest, elsewhere ndž: somniāre $>$ sonhar soniar. Somni, beside suenh songe, is learned.

Mply > mply in ampliāre > ampliar, probably learned.
$\mathrm{My}>\mathrm{my}$ and $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}:$ simia $>$ simia, vindèmia $>$ vendẹmia vendanha.

Nc'y $>$ nts $>$ ns: * Francia $>$ Fransa. Cf. Nty.
$\mathrm{Nd}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{ndž:} \mathrm{*} \mathrm{pĕndǐcat}>$ penia, vĭndǐco>vẹnie. Similarly mandūcāre $>$ * mandugare manduyare mandyare $>$ maniar ${ }^{1}$.
$\mathrm{Ndy}>\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ : * Burgŭndia $>$ Borgọnha, verecündia $>$ vergọnha. Cf. Ny.
$\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{ndž:} \mathrm{*} \mathrm{excommìnĭco} \mathrm{(=excommünǐco)}>$ escomenie ${ }^{1}$, mŏnăchum > monie.
$\mathrm{Ng}^{\prime}>\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ and $\mathrm{ndž}$ : jüngěre $>$ iọnher iọnger, ŭngěre $>$ ọnher onger, plangĕre $>$ phanher planger, pŭngĕre $>$ pọnher ponger. Angel is probably learned.

Ng'y > ndž: spŏngia > esponia.
Nty $>$ nts $>$ ns: cantiōnem $>$ canso, comĭn(i)tiāre $>$ comensar, sperantia $>$ esperansa. Purely learned words have nti: essentia. Cf. Nc'y.
$\mathrm{Ny}>\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ : extraneum $>$ estranh, těneo $>$ tenh, vĕniat $>$ venha. Before or during the literary period final $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ or $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ s lost its

[^33]palatal quality in many dialects: ingěnium $>$ genh gen. If estraniar comes from extraneāre (and not from * extranicāre), it must be a word of later adoption; so estrangier. In sotrixn <subterraneum there is probably a change of suffix.

Pfy seems to became f in ${ }^{*} k u ̈ p p h j a>$ cofa.
Pry probably became regularly bry: capreŏlum $>^{*}$ cabriọ cabirol (cabrol seems to be a new formation from cabra). Coyre $<$ ? cüpreum is unexplained.

Pty $>$ ts, which, when it remained medial, was reduced, before and during the literary period, to s: *captiāre $>$ cassar, * corrŭptiāre > corrossar, nĕptia > nẹssa, * nŏptias $(\S 38,2)>$ nossas. Cf. C'y.

Py remained py in the west and a part of the south, and elsewhere became ptš, later tš: apium $>$ ache api, *apprơpiat (<pröpe) > apropcha aprocha apropia, sapiam > sapcha sacha sapia, sapiëntem $>$ sachent sapient, sēpia > sepia. If asabentar, 'instruct', comes from sapientem, it has been influenced by sabẹ, sabẹn. Pioon <pipiōnem is French. Learned words have $p^{i}$ : copia; but mancïpium $>$ mancip massip.

Rc'y > rts ( $>\mathrm{rs}$ ?): urceŏlum (Zs., XXVI, 668) > orzọl.
Rdy $>$ rdi in hŏrdeum $>$ ordi.
$\mathrm{R}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{rdž}$ : clërǐcus > clẹies.
$\mathrm{Rg}^{\prime}>\mathrm{rdž}$ and $\mathrm{rdz}(>\mathrm{rz})$ : argěntum $>$ argen, ${ }^{*} \operatorname{burg}_{\mathrm{e}}(n)$ sis $>$ borges borzes (also borgues, under the influence of borc), dēēerĭgit $>$ dẹs, * dè-ēr $(i)$ gĕre $>$ dẹrzer (also derdre: §71), sŭrgĕre $>$ sorger sọrzer, sürgit $>$ sọrtz.

Rny $>\mathrm{rn}^{\prime}$ : Arvĕrnium $>$ Alvẹrnhe.
$\mathrm{Rr}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{rdž}$ : * carricat $>$ caria.
Rry? > rdž in *horrearium ? > orgier (cf. Körting).
Rt-g $>\mathrm{rdž}$ and rts ( $>\mathrm{rs}$ ): * excŏrtǐcat $>$ escoria escôrsa.

Rty $>$ rts $>$ rs: * fortiäre $>$ forsar, tĕrtium $>$ tẹrz tẹrs. Convercio is learned.

Rvy > rvy rby: * cěrvia > cervia cerbia.
† $\mathrm{Ry}>\mathrm{r}^{\prime}$, which developed into ir when it remained medial, but became $r$ at the end of a word ${ }^{1}$ : *exclariāre $>$ esclairar, * donatōria $>$ donadoira, * fĕria $>$ feiira fiẹira, fëriat $>$ feeira, $m a$ těria $>$ madẹira, * mŏriat $>$ mọira, primaria $>$ premẹira premiẹira (§ 23, I), * punitōria $>$ punidọira, varia $>$ vaira, variāre $>$ vairar; ${ }^{*} a(u)$ gūrium $>$ aür, cŏrium $>$ cuęr, ${ }^{*}$ donatōrium $>$ donadọ, impĕrium $>$ empię, mĭnistěrium $>$ mestiẹ, ${ }^{*}$ mŏrio $>$ mor muer, monastérium $>$ mostiẹ $(\S 45,3)$, primarius $>$ premiẹrs, * punitōrius $>$ punidors. If the ry is preceded by au, it apparently remains unchanged: Auriācum $>$ Auriac ( $Z s$., XXVII, 559). Learned words have $r i$ : bori>ebŏreum, contrari.

1. Adjectives in -er (-ier) and -or, coming from -arium and -ōrium, regularly have feminines in -iira (-ieira) and -oira. By the analogy of the masculine, there is a feminine in -era in parts of the west; by the analogy of the feminine, there is a masculine in -eir in Auvergne. The i of vair probably comes from the feminine vaira and from the verb vairar. The noun feira sometimes becomes fiera like a feminine adjective.

Sc'y: see Ssy.
Ssy, sc'y, sty $>s^{\prime}$, which in most of the territory became is, but in the west and the extreme east developed into $i(t) s$ and (t)š: *bassiāre > baissar baichar bachar, * angŭstia >engoissa, * ingrŏssiat $>$ engruẹissa, fascia $>$ faissa, * grassiäre $>$ graissar, pŏstea $>$ puêissas pueih püch, ūstium $>$ üis.

Sty: see Ssy.

- $\mathrm{Sy}>z^{\prime}$, which in most of the territory became $i z$, but in parts of the northeast, north, and west developed into $i(d) \check{z}$ and (d)ž, and in some scattered dialects gave y and $z: b a$ -

[^34]sium $>$ bais bai $\left(\S 6_{3}\right)$, basiare $>$ baisar baiiar baiar bayar basar, quasi + vowel > cais quaish, camisia (cf. Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie, XII, 265) > camiza, cerěsea (Einf., § 103 ) $>$ cireeiza ciriẹiia ceriẹya ceriẹza, $m a(n)$ siōnem $>$ maisọn maiiọn maiọn mayọ, occasiönem $>$ ochaizọ, pre(hen) siönem $>$ preiso (cf. enpreyọna, 'imprisons'), quĭd se + vowel > quẹis, Ger. sazjan > saisir, to ( $n$ ) siönem $>$ toiso.
$\mathrm{T}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{dž}$ : * coratǐcum $>$ corage, *paratĭcum $>$ parage, viaticum $>$ viatie.

Try apparently became ir: atrium? $>$ aire, arbütrium $>$ albire.

Tty $>$ ts $>\mathrm{s}$ : * plattĕ $a>$ plassa.
Ty $>$ apparently $\mathrm{t}^{\prime}>\mathrm{d}^{\prime}>$ generally $\mathrm{d}^{\prime} z^{\prime},{ }^{1}$ which in most of the west and north became dz , but in the south and east developed into $\mathrm{idz} ; \mathrm{dz}$ and idz , when they remained medial, were reduced, before and during the literary period, to z and iz: * altĩtia > altẹza, * bellǐtia > belẹza, malǐtia > malẹza, pigrǐtia $>$ pereeza, ${ }^{*}$ prětiat $>$ preeza, ${ }^{*}$ rikǐtia $>$ riquẹza; palatium $>$ palatz palaitz palais (§ 64), pŭteum $>$ pọtz püis, prëtium $>$ prẹtz prees, solatium $>$ solatz solas; potiōnem $>$ pozon poizon, ${ }^{*}$ pretiāre $>$ prezar, ratiōnem $>$ razọ raizọn, $s(t)$ atiōnem $>$ sazọ saizọn. The forms without i prevail in the literary language, and in words in which the $d z$ comes after the accent (especially in the ending -eza) they seem to have encroached largely upon the ground of the others. ${ }^{2}$ According to some philologists, the development of ty differed according to its position before or after the accent: for a brief bibliography of the discussion,

[^35]see $Z s$., XXVII, 68g. In learned words we find $z i, c i, c ̧ i, t i$ : estimatio, iustizia -icia -ecia -eçia, natio nacio, negoci, servizi -ici (cf. A. Horning, Zs., XXIV, 545, XXV, 736).
r. Palai (beside palatz -aitz -ais) may have been made from palais (used by Bertran de Born and in Flamenca) by dropping the s which was regarded as an inflectional ending. It was perhaps influenced by such words as bais bai: cf. Sy. A clerical Latin *palasium, however, would account, not only for palai palais, but also for French palais and for Italian palagio.
2. Modern poijon (Alps) and rajo (Limousin) have perhaps followed the analogy of such words as maison maijon majon: cf. Sy.
3. Escoisson <excütiunt seems to follow *escois<excǔtio. It was perhaps influenced by conoisson $<c o(g) n o ̄ s c u n t$.
4. Some of the modern western dialects have din radon, sadon, etc. $=$ razo, sazo, etc.

## 6. Groups Beginning with L, M, N, R, or S.

74. (1) Of the groups beginning with 1 (and not ending in 1 , $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{w}$, or y ), the following remained unchanged (except that c before a became ts in the north and northwest). -1 b , 1 c (and llc), $1 \mathrm{~g}(\operatorname{llg}), 1 \mathrm{~m}, 1 \mathrm{p}, 1 \mathrm{v}:$ alba $>$ alba; calcāre $>$ calcar, collocāre * colcāre > colcar (-char) ; collocare * collogare * colgare $>$ colgar; hëlm > ẹlm, ǔlmum > ọlm; cŏlăphum * cŏlpum > colp (кó $\lambda \pi$ os $>$ golfe is unexplained) ; calvum >calv (= calf?), salvāre $>$ salvar. Ld, ls (lls), 1t (llt) were regularly unchanged except for the vocalization of the 1: see below. $\mathbf{L c}^{\prime}$ (llc') became lts, and then the 1 was vocalized: see below. Lc'p became lp in calce pisāre>calpisar. $\mathbf{L g}^{\prime}, \mathbf{l l g}^{\prime}$, have been treated in § 73. Lvs, lvt became 1 s , lt , and then the 1 was vocalized: see below.
(2) L became $u$ before the dental consonants $d, s, t$ in most of the dialects. The vocalization seems to have begun in the 8th century and to have progressed through the literary
period and later. It is difficult to trace it, as $l$ long continued to be written for $u$. In modern Provençal, is remains in Languedoc, lt in Rouergue. Auça occurs in the Boeci. The 1 was probably first retracted, to differentiate it from the following dental; and then this velar 1 was opened into $u$. Ex.: cal( $\imath)$ daria $>$ caudiera, $\operatorname{cal}(\stackrel{\imath}{\imath}) d u m>$ caut, $\operatorname{soll}(\imath \imath) d u m>$ solt sout; falsum $>$ fals faus, malos $>$ mals maus, valles $>$ vals vaus; * fallǐta $>$ fauta, mŭltum $>$ mọlt mout, ${ }^{*}$ tŏllĭtum $>$ tọlt tọut; dülcem $>$ dọlz dọutz dọus, pŏllŭcem $>$ pọutz, saľ̆cem $>$ sautz; calvus $>$ * cals caus, * vŏlvǐta $>$ volta vọta. So * altiat $>$ auça aussa, * calceare > cauçar caussar: cf. § 73, Lc'y, Lty. In dos (=dous) and mot (= mout) the o seems to have absorbed the $u$. Cf. § $6_{5}$, L.
r. The final t of molt seems to have been lost sometimes before a consonant: hence mul, which before d became mon.
75. Altretal (also autretal) became atretal by dissimilation; hence we have also atressi for altressi (autressi). Aital, aitan seem to be made up of $\operatorname{tal}, \tan$ with the first syllable of aissi (<ac sic), regarded as a prefix meaning 'just'.
76. Palľdus $>$ palles (through *pádillus?).
77. Fouzer is from fülger or $*$ fülgerem $=$ fülgur.
78. Of the groups beginning with $m$ (and not ending in 1 , r , w, or y ), the following usually remained unchanged - mb, $\mathrm{md}, \mathrm{mf}, \mathrm{mp}, \mathrm{ms}, \mathrm{mt}$ : gamba> gamba (if bobansa is from $\beta_{0} \mu \beta$ os, it is irregular) ; *semitarium * semidarium $>$ semdier; triumphāre > triomfar; lampas *lampa > lampa; * camisīle? $>$ camsil (dialectically cansil; so Samson, Sanso); cơmĭtem $>$ comte (dialectically conte). Mbd shows four different developments in ambo düos $>$ ambedos abdos amdos andos. Mbt apparently became nt in *cambĭtos $+-\bar{n}$ nem $>$ cantọn (French?). Mn in the literary language generally remained unchanged (often spelled $m p n$ ), but in some dialects it was
assimilated into nn , which was locally simplified into n : dŏmǐna dŏmna>dompna domna donna dona, damnāre> dampnar damnar dannar danar, fēmĭna *fèmna $>$ fẹmna fẹna (feme is from fémena<fêmĭna), hŏmĭnem * hŏmnem $>$ omne (ome is from *ómene < hömĭnem). ${ }^{1} \quad \mathbf{M n c}{ }^{\prime}>\mathrm{ndz} \mathrm{nz} \mathrm{in}$ * domnicēlla > donzẹla. $\mathbf{M p t}>\mathrm{mt}$, dialectically nt: computāre $>$ comtar contar, temptāre $>$ temptar tentar.
79. (1) Of the groups beginning with $n$ (and not ending in $1, r$, $w$, or $y$ ), the following generally remained unchanged (except that $c, g$ before a became tš, dž in the north and northeast) -nc, nd, ng, nm, nt: hanka $>$ anca, blank-> blanc (-ca -cha), franko $>$ franc (-ca -cha); mandāre $>$ mandar, ünda $>$ onda; lŏngum $>$ lonc ( $-\mathrm{ga}-\mathrm{ia}$ ), plango $>$ planc, rĭng $>$ rẹnc; anı̆ma $>$ anma (also, by dissimilation, arma); sentire $>$ sentir. For final nd, nt, see (2) below. $\mathrm{Nc}^{\prime}>\mathrm{nts} \mathrm{ns}$ : ${ }^{*}$ francee $(n)$ sis $>$ frances, mancĭpium $>$ mansip (also massip: cf. ns below), vincere $>$ vẹncer vẹnser. Nct became in different dialects $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ int $n t \mathrm{ntš}: ~ j u ̈ n c t u m>i o ̣ n h ~$ ioint iọnt iọnch, ünctüra $>$ onchüra, * pı̈nctüra $>$ peintüra penchüra, planctum $>$ planh planch, sanctum $>$ sanh saint sant. Ndc' became, in different dialects, ndz (later nz), nts, ndž: quindĕčim $>$ quinze quintze quinge. Nf remained in some dialects, while in others it became ff, then f : confündit $>$ confọ cofon, infantem $>$ enfant effant efant, infërnum $>$ enfẹn efẹrn. Ng>ng: mŏnăchum * mon'gu > mongue (manicum $>$ margue by dissimilation). Ns, in learned words and new formations (see § $55, \mathrm{~N}$ ), remained in most dialects, while in others (especially those of the centre) it became ss, then s: consǐlium $>$ conselh cosselh, in simul $>$ ensem essem, * insignāre $>$ ensenhar essenhar, pensāre $>$ pensar pessar, sen-

[^36]sus $>$ sens; for final ns, see § 63, (5). Ntc' $>$ nts ns in pantĭcem $>$ pansa. Nv remained in some dialects, while in others it became vv , then v : convenire $>$ convenir covenir. Ndc, $\mathrm{ndg}, \mathrm{n}-\mathrm{g}, \mathrm{ng} \mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ have been treated under § 73 .
(2) Final nd remained as nt in the eastern and central part of the territory, became n in the west and a part of Limou$\sin$, and disappeared altogether in a part of Languedoc and Gascony: amando $>$ aman, descěndit $>$ deissen, grandem $>$ grant gran gra, mündum $>$ mọnt mọn, vēndit $>$ vẹnt bẹn, profündum $>$ preon, quando $>$ quant quan. Final nt remained in most of the territory, but in a part of Languedoc and Gascony became n or disappeared: fŏntem $>$ font fon fo, mŏntem $>$ mont mon, quantum $>$ quant quan, vĕntum $>$ vent bent be.
77. Of the groups beginning with $r$ (and not ending in 1 , r , w, or y ), the following remained unchanged (except that c , g before a became tš, dž in the north and northeast) - rb, rc, rd, rf, rg, rm, rn, rp, rs, rt, rv: barba $>$ barba, cŏrbum $>$ corp, hĕrba $>$ ęrba, ŏrbum $>$ orp; barca $>$ barca, cĭrcāre $>$ cercar, clĕř̌̌um * clërcum > clẹrc, fürca $>$ fọrca fọrcha, mercātum $>$ mercat; ardëntem $>$ arden, ${ }^{*}$ perdūtum $>$ perdüt, vĭr ( $(\stackrel{\imath}{l})$ dem $>$ vẹt ; ŏrphănum > orfe; * carricāre * carrigāre * cargāre > cargar cariar, largum $>\operatorname{larc}(-\mathrm{ga}-\mathrm{ia})$, sèrǐca ${ }^{*}$ sērga $>$ sẹga; 乞̆řēmum $>$ ẹrm, förma $>$ fọrma; hibĕrnum $>$ ivẹrn, tabĕrna $>$ tavẹrna, tornāre $>$ tornar; wërpan $>$ guerpir; arsum $>$ ars, cürsum $>$ cors (for vërsus $>$ vẹs, see $\S 55, \mathrm{R}$ ); artem $>$ art, förtem $>$ fort, mörtem $>$ mơrt; Arvernia $>$ 'Arvernha (also, by dissimilation, Al-), servīre $>$ servir. For final $\mathrm{rn}, \mathrm{rs}$, see § $63,(5) ; \S 65, \mathrm{R}$. $\mathrm{Rc}^{\prime}>\mathrm{rts} \mathrm{rs}:$ parcĕre $>$ parcer, parcit $>$ partz, * tŏrcĕre $>$ tọser. Rdc' became, in different dialects, rdz (later rz), rts, rdž: quatuŏrdĕcim *quattōrdëcim $>$ quatọrze quatọrtze quatọrge. Rdg before $\mathrm{a}>\mathrm{rg}$, rdž: zǐridicantem * vǐrdigantem $>$ verguan verian.

Rps $>\mathrm{rs}$ : *escarpsus (=excerptus) $>$ escars. $\mathrm{Rtm}>\mathrm{rtm}$ or rm : förti mĕnte $>$ fortmen formen. $\mathrm{Rg}^{\prime}$ has been treated under § 73 .
78. Of the groups beginning with s (and not ending in 1 , r , w, or y ), the following usually remained unchanged through the literary period (except that c before a became ts in the north and northeast) - sc, sm (ssm), sn, sp, st: *bŭscum (? = bŭxum) ? > bosc, * lŭscum > lọsc, pascha>pasca pascha, pĕrsǐca pĕssǐca * pěsca $>$ pesca, piscātor $>$ pescaire, piscarium $>$ pesquier peschier, frëscan ${ }^{*}$ trescāre $>$ trescar; ex-mïttëre *esmĭttĕre $(\S 55, \mathrm{X})>$ esmetre, pěssimus $>$ pẹsmes; eleemŏsy̆na $>$ almọsna, asĭnum $>$ asne; expōnĕre * espōnĕre $>$ espọnre, gaspildjan? > guespilhar; prapŏsĭtum $>$ prebost, trīstem $>$ trist. For final scs, sts, see 2 below. $\mathrm{Sc}^{\prime}$ became, in most of the territory, is; in parts of the north and northeast, $s$; in the west and the extreme east, $\mathrm{i}(\mathrm{t}) \mathrm{s}$ and ( t$) \mathrm{s}$ (cf. § 73, Ssy): co $(g)$ nöscĕre $>$ conọisser, crēscëre $>$ crẹisser, ex-cërnĕre * escĕrn̄̄re $>$ eissernir, *ex-cerebellāre *es-> esservelar, fascem $>$ fais, nascĕre $>$ naisser nasser naicher nacher, pisscem $>$ pẹis peich pech. Scb became sb in epǐscŏpus * ebiscobus $>$ bisbes. Spm became sm in blasphemāre>blasmar. Stg became sg and sdž in domesticāre ${ }^{*}$-gāre $>$ domesgar domesiar. Stm became sm in asthma $>$ asma. For the later history of the $s$ in all these groups, see $\S 65, \mathrm{~S}$, 1 .

1. Prěsby̆ter became regularly prestre: § 71, I. But beside presbb̆ter there existed in Vulgar Latin prebiter (Einf., § 140), the syllable presbeing replaced by the Latin prefix pre- or pre-, through the analogy of such words as prabitor, prapositus. From the accusative prebitérum we have regularly prevẹire. Prẹire (used in Flamenca) seems to be a cross between prestre and prevẹire.
2. Final sts, in nearly all the territory, was reduced to ts: finistis $>$ finitz, hø̈stis $>\mathrm{oz}$ (accusative ọst), trīstes $>$ tritz (sg. trist); but sts was kept in ẹtz<istos and in its derivative aquẹtz. Similarly final scs was
generally reduced to cs: *büscus? $>$ (bǫscs) bọcs (accusative bọsc), qutsquis > quẹcs.
3. Conois etc. $<c o(g) n \bar{s} s c o$ etc. (beside conosc etc.) are doubtless due to the second and third persons (conoisses conois etc.). Some of the modern eastern dialects have - isso corresponding to $-s c a$ (freisso etc.) : this seems to indicate an old metathesis of sc in that region.

## 7. Miscellaneous Groups.

79. Of the groups not yet discussed, the most important are ct, gd, gn, ks, which show palatalization. It is now generally assumed that the Celts, who had turned their native ct into $x$ t, pronounced Latin ct in the same way when they learned Latin (Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 186), and likewise substituted xs for ks (Meyer-Lübke, Gram., I, § 650), and probably xd , xn for gd , gn. The x was attracted into a palatal spirant by the following dental, and the dental itself was then palatalized. Most philologists explain the development of cl , gl into $\mathrm{l}^{\prime}$ (cf. § 68) in a similar way. Inasmuch as Indo-European pt had also been changed to $x$ t in Celtic, it is not unlikely that the Celts substituted xt , xs for Latin pt, ps in a few words; the $x$ replacing p may sometimes have been rounded.
I. To account for palatalization in the non-Celtic parts of southern Gaul, we may assume either that the spirant pronunciation spread from the Celtic to the other regions, or that in the latter the palatalization came about simply through the mutual attraction of the guttural and the dental.
80. The groups will now be discussed in alphabetical order: -
$\mathrm{Bc}>\left({ }^{*} \mathrm{pc}\right)$, ptš (before a): ${ }^{*}$ reprŏb (̌) cat $>$ repropcha.
$\mathrm{Brg}>\mathrm{rg}$ in fabrïca ${ }^{*}$ fabrĭga $>$ farga.
$\mathrm{Bs}>\mathrm{bs}$ in the learned words absens, absensa.
Bsc $>\mathrm{sc}$ : obscūrus $>$ escürs.

Bst> st: sübstat> sosta.
$\mathrm{Bt}>\mathrm{bt}, \mathrm{t}:$ subtīlem $>$ sobtil sotil. See also $\beta \mathrm{t}$ below.
Bts $>$ ts: sübtus $>$ sotz.
$\beta \mathrm{c}>\mathrm{uc}$ : * avǐca * a $\beta c a>$ auca.
$\beta c^{\prime}>\mathrm{udz}$ or uts, later uz, us: avicĕllum * a $\beta$ cěllu $>$ auzẹl aucel. Cf. § $65, \mathrm{C}^{\prime}$, 1 .
$\beta \mathrm{d}>\mathrm{ud}$, in the west bd: dēbı̆tum * dēßüdu * de $\beta d u>$ dẹude, mal'habǐtum * malaßĭdu * malaßdu> malaude; cīvitātem * cīßidāde ${ }^{*}$ cißdad > cibdat. Cf. $\beta \mathrm{t}$ below.
$\beta \mathrm{t}>\mathrm{ut}$, in the west pt: dēbŭtum * dē $\beta t u>$ dẹute depte, dübŭto * düßto > doute dopte, mal'habǐtum * malaßtu $>$ malaute malapte; cīvitātem * cīßtate $>$ ciutat (later cieutat: § 44, 2) ciptat, * mŏvĭta * mŏßta $>$ mọuta, ${ }^{*}$ remōvĭtum ? > remoute (Girart). Depte, malapte are not confined to the west (modern Limousin dete, Dauphiné malate); they come also from Latin dēb'tum, mal'hab'tum: cf. § 47, (3).
$\mathrm{Cc}^{\prime}>$ its $>$ is; in the west and the extreme east itš or tš: $e c c^{\prime} h i c>$ eici eissi eichi achi.
$\mathrm{Cm}>\mathrm{cm}, \mathrm{m}$ : * Jácomus $>$ Iacmes Iames (also, perhaps borrowed, Iaumes).
$\mathrm{C}^{\prime} \mathrm{m}>\mathrm{im}$ or $\mathrm{sm}:$ dĕcïmum $>$ dẹime dẹsme, facïmu $(s)>$ faim. Cf. § $\mathbf{5}^{2}$, (4).
$\mathrm{Ct}>\mathrm{ts}$ in most of the territory; but in the north and northeast, and in the southwest, it became, as in French, it: coctāre $>$ cochar coitar, dīctum $>$ dig dit, factum $>$ fag fait, lacte $>$ lag lait, lĕctum $>$ liẹg lẹit, lūcta $>$ lücha, nŏctem $>$ nuẹg nuẹit, pactum $-a>$ pacha, péctus $>$ piẹg pẹitz, ŏcto $>$ uẹich ${ }^{1}$ uẹit. The ct of $(e-)$ jectāre $>$ getar does not show popular treatment; the word is similarly irregular in most of the other languages.

C't seems to give the same results as ct, namely ts and it: dicicutis $>$ ditz, * explïcitāre $>$ esplechar espleitar, facĭtis $>$ faitz,

[^37]placǐtum $>$ plach plait, (hence plaieiamen, plaideiar), * vŏč̌tum (=vacuum) $>$ vuech voig ${ }^{1}$ voh (hence voiar; voidar would appear to presuppose a form * voit).

Dc, dg: see § 73, D-g.
$\mathrm{Dc}^{\prime}$, in the greater part of the territory, became $\mathrm{d} z$, later $z$; but in Auvergne and some western dialects it became ts, and in parts of the southeast and southwest it gave dž: duödĕcim * dōdĕcim $>$ dọze dọtze dọge, jūdīcem $>$ iütge, radicīna $>$ razina, sēdëcim>sẹze sẹtze sẹtge. Iütge may have been influenced by iütiar.

Dn developed peculiarly in consuetūdĭnem * costūmen $>$ costüm, incūdǐnem *inclūd-? > enclütge.
$\mathrm{Gd}>\mathrm{d} \check{z}$ and id, corresponding to the tš and it from ct: * frĭgdum ( $=$ frīgdum) $>$ frẹg frẹit (fem. frẹia frẹida). The irregularity in amy̆gdăla>amandola goes back to Vulgar Latin. Frezir freizir is perhaps from * fre(i)zar (cf. Italian frizzare) < * frigdiare.
$\mathrm{G}^{\prime} \mathrm{d}$ : see Yd.
$\mathrm{Gm}>\mathrm{m}:$ pigměntum $>$ pimen. Fragment is learned. Greek $\gamma \mu$ became um: phlĕgma $>$ flẹuma, sagma $>$ sauma.
$\mathrm{Gn}>\mathrm{n}$ ': agnĕllum $>$ anhẹl, pŭgnum $>$ pọnh. According to the rhymes, final $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ would seem to have become n in many dialects. Stagnum $>$ estanc, rēgnum $>$ renc (also reing) show an early metathesis. When gnōsco lost its $g$, cognōsco became * conōsco in popular Latin.

Gnd $>\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ d, later, in different dialects, ind, n'd, nd, ndž: cơgnĭtum * cŏn'ı̆du $>^{*}$ connhede * cọnhde, then coinde, cuẹnde, conge. Cf. Gnt below. See § 47, r.

Gnt $>$ n't, later, in different dialects, int, n't, nt: coğnǐtum $>$ *con'ïtu $>$ * conhete (the $t$ being due to clerical influence) $>$

[^38]cọinte cọnte; ď̆onitātem * dīn'tāte $>$ denhtat. Cf. Gnd above.
Ks $>$ is, in most of the territory; in Auvergne and in the extreme east it became itš or tš: ac sic $>$ aissi, exāmen $>$ eissam eicham echam, exĭlium $>$ eissilh, exīre $>$ eissir eichir ichir, *exorbäre $>$ eissorbar, laxat $>$ laissa, uxōrem $>$ oisọ, tŏxicum $>$ tuẹissec. In essaiar, essemple, essilh, the prefix became es- through the analogy of ex-before consonants: cf. § $55, \mathrm{X}$.

Ksc>sc; before a, in the north and northeast, stš: * laxicāre $>$ laschar, toxicāre $>$ toscar.
$\mathrm{K} \mathrm{sm}>\mathrm{s}^{\prime} \mathrm{m}$, later sm : prŏximum $>$ prosme pruesme. For the later history of the $s$ (prueime), see § $65, \mathrm{~S}$, .

Kss > is: *exser (r)āre (Einf., § 142) > eissarrar, *exsūcāre $>$ eissügar (essugar presupposes a Vulgar Latin es-: see § $55, \mathrm{X}$ ).
$\mathrm{Pf}>\mathrm{f}$ : sapphīrum $>$ safir.
$\mathrm{Ppc}>\left({ }^{*} \mathrm{pc}\right)$, ptš (before a): * cloppicāre $>$ clopchar.
Ps , in some dialects, remained unaltered; but in most of the territory it changed (through xs : § 79) to is, iš, š, s, and us; iš and š belonging especially to the west, us to the east: capsa $>$ capsa caissa caisha casha, ĭpse > eps ẹis, ĭpsa mĕnte $>$ epsament eissamen ichamens, met-žpse> medẹis mezẹish me-
 have been crowded out by the others, especially by those with is.

Pt $>\mathrm{pt}$, later t (except in parts of Languedoc and Gascony); in a few words, ut, it: *accaptāre (or *accapitāre?) $>$ acaptar achatar, aptum>apte, adaptāre $>$ azautar (hence azaut) through * ađ̛axtāre (§79), baptizāre >baptegar ( $g=$ dž) bateiar, capitāle $>$ captal catal chatal, captīvum $>$ captiu catiu and more commonly caitiu chaitiu (through * caxtī $\beta$ u:
§ 79), rŭpta > rọta, septimāna > septmana setmana, sĕptem $>$ set. Escrich escrit ( $=$ scrīptum) are probably formed on the model of dich dit.
$\mathrm{Td}>\mathrm{t}$ (through V. L. tt ): nîtĩdum $>$ nẹt, pützudum $>$ püt. Cf. § 47, (1).

Tn: if renha, 'rein', is connected with rětïne (see Körting), it must have been influenced by renhar < regnäre.

Ts: et sīc, under the influence of ac sīc, became ${ }^{*}$ ec sic $>$ eissi eichi ichi.
$\mathrm{Yd}>\mathrm{dž}$ and id: cōgžto * cōyždo $>$ cüg cüit, cōgitāre * cōyidare $>$ cüiar cuildar, rĭgĭdum * rĭyŭdu $>$ rẹide $(\S 50,1)$. Rede is perhaps a cross between reide and rege: § 49, (1).

## FINAL CONSONANTS.

81. The only single consonants that occur in Latin at the end of a word are $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{t}$. The only groups (in words preserved) are ks, nt, st.

## Single Final Consonants.

82. D, n, r, t at the end of proclitics (ad, in, per, et) are really medial consonants, and must be distinguished from final n, r, t in independent words (nömen, frater, amat); final d occurs only in proclitics. The consonants will be treated in alphabetical order: -

B appears as b in Iacob, p in Iop, both learned.
$f_{C}$ apparently fell after all vowels in some dialects; in others it remained after back vowels, and became $i$ after a and front vowels: eccu'hŏc (§55, W) > aco (§43, 2), ecce hŏc > aisso ço so, $h \check{o c}>0$ oc (in the literary language these two forms were differentiated in use, o meaning 'it', oc meaning 'yes'); fac $>$ fai, illác $(\S 16,4)>$ lai la, ecce hac $>$ sai sa; dīc $>$ di, ecce
$h \bar{i} c>$ eici, $s \bar{c} c>$ si. Düi < dūc may perhaps be explained as due to the analogy of düire and of fai. Cf. § 63 , (6).

D in $a p u d$ fell early: see $\S 65, \mathrm{P}, 2$. In the proclitics $a d$, quăd, the d disappeared before a consonant, and before a vowel became in most dialects $\delta>z$ (cf. § 65, D): a, quẹ; a $\delta$ az , quẹð quẹz.

L fell in in simul>essem. It remained in the learned Abel, tribunal. It is believed by some that sivals, 'at least', comes from sī vel.

4 M fell in Vulgar Latin at the end of a word of more than one syllable (§55, M): crēdam crēda>crẹza, dōnum dōnu> don, förtem förte $>$ fort; Adam is learned. At the end of an independent monosyllable, it fell in some dialects and in others became $\mathrm{n}(\mathrm{cf}. \S 65, \mathrm{~N}):$ jam $>\mathrm{ia}$, rèm $>$ rẹ rẹn (Marcabru uses rey for the rhyme), sum (verb) $>$ so sọ. At the end of proclitics, $m$ was probably kept at first before vowels and labials, while it became n before dentals, $\mathrm{\eta}$ before gutturals, and disappeared before spirants; but the n forms (helped by the analogy of en,-non) and those without a final consonant replaced m before vowels and partly before labials, and probably took the place of $\eta$ before gutturals; we find, then, sometimes m before labials, but either no consonant or n before all other sounds: quĕm $>$ que, süm (verb) $>$ sọ sọn, sŭm $(=$ sŭum $)>$ sọ sọn sọm, * tŭm $(=$ tŭum $)>$ tọ tọn tọm.
t N fell in Vulgar Latin at the end of a word of more than one syllable (§55, M): nōmen nōme > nọm. At the end of proclitics we generally find n before a vowel, a form without n before spirants, both forms before other consonants, but often m before a labial: in>en (en amar, en cant), e ( $e$ Fransa, e ls), em (em breu); nōn> non (non es, non ges), no (no falh, no tol), nom (nom plagues).

R remained: amātor $>$ amaire, cŏr $>$ cor, marmor $>$ marbre (marme shows dissimilation), sŏror $>$ sorre (sor through proclitic use). So in proclitics: per $>$ per, süper $>$ sobre.

1. A Provençal final $r$ began to fall in the west and south in the 14 th century : cf. § $65, \mathrm{R}, \mathrm{I}$.

S remained: amīcus $>$ amics, cŏrpus $>$ cors, facias $>$ fassas, förtes $>$ fortz, ŏpĕras $>$ obras, sübtus $>$ sọtz. Between a palatal, or an n that did not fall, and an s , a t developed in some dialects: annos >anz, filios>filz; cf. § 63, (1), (8).
I. Final $s$ began to fall or to become $i$ in many dialects as early as the 14th century: cf. $\S 65, \mathrm{~S}, \mathrm{I}$. In mai, beside mais, the fall was earlier.
2. Final $\mathrm{ts}>\mathrm{t}$, in the second person plural of verbs, in parts of Limousin and Dauphiné: habētis >avẹt. Cf. § 64. In all first person plural forms (except esmes) final s fell very early: amāmus amāmu' $>$ amám. Cf. § 167.
3. Through the influence of such common adverbs as entz<intus, fors<föris, ios<deörsum, mais<magis, mens<minus, nemps<nïmis, plus<plūs, sotz<sübtus, sus<sürsum, s, coming to be regarded as an adverbial ending, was often added to the suffix -men (belamens), to many other adverbs, as ensem-s, era-s, onca-s, poissa-s, and to some prepositions, as sen-s (cf. tras, vers, etc.). By the analogy of such double forms, we have for, men beside fors, mens.
4. Magis, used as a proclitic, probably became in Vulgar Latin * mais and *mas, whence Provençal mais and mas. For mai, see I above.
$\mathcal{T}$, in independent words, fell very early, except in the preterit of verbs; there it was retained in most dialects in weak preterits of the first and third conjugations, in many dialects in weak preterits of the fourth, but disappeared in strong preterits: amat >ama, cantābat > cantava, dar * hat > dara, dōnet $>$ dọn, stat $>$ esta, partībat $>$ partia, placet $>$ platz, tenèr $+-\bar{e}(b) a t>$ tenria, vënit $>$ ven; donävit $>$ donẹt done, vēnď̌dit * vendếdit $>$ vendẹt vendẹ, partīvit partīt $>$ partị partị, placuit $>$ plac, vidit $>$ vi. In the proclitics et and * ot (=aut), the t fell before consonants; before vowels it became d ,
which, under the influence of $a d$ and $q u z ̌ d$, developed like an original d: et $>\mathrm{e}$, eð ez ; * ot $>\mathrm{o}$, oठ oz; later, e and o came to be used often before vowels also.

## Final Groups.

83. Ks remained in Vulgar Latin at the end of monosyllables only ( $\S 55, \mathrm{X}$ ); there it became, in Provençal, is: rēx $>$ rẹis, sëx $>$ sęis. Grecx, nicx are Latinisms.

Nt was generally reduced to n ; but in the extreme north and some parts of the south the t was retained in -ant: amant $>$ aman, habē (b)ant > avian aviant; cantent $>$ canten; vēndunt $>$ vẹndon. In some dialects the $n$ fell after $o, u$ (vẹndo, $a u$ ); -on and -o were used concurrently by the poets.
$\mathrm{St}>\mathrm{s}$ in ëst>ees. Cf. § 28,5.

## SPORADIC CHANGE.

84. For certain consonant changes no laws have been established. ${ }^{1}$ Some of them doubtless originate in the language of children, which is governed by principles different from those which regulate the speech of adults. Others are due to vague associations of sound or sense. Borrowed and learned words are especially exposed to such whimsical alteration.

## Insertion.

85. The insertion (or addition) of a consonant, in such cases as those mentioned below, is probably always due to some false association or wrong etymology, but the specific

[^39]cause often cannot be ascertained; the added consonant seems to be generally a liquid or a nasal:-
alhọndre-s<aliünde: V. L. *aliünder?
consi $=$ cossi<eccu' sic: analogy of the prefix co-con-. Cf. § 76, ( I ), nf, ns.
enclutge<incüdinem: cf. French enclume.
e ngal =egal< equälem: analogy of the prefix e-en-. Cf. § 76, ( I ), nf, ns.
i nvern = ivern < hibĕrnum : hi- mistaken for the prefix in-; cf. Italian inverno, etc.
parven (hence parvensa) < parěntem (parēre): analogy of ferven, serven, or of espaven, espavensa ?
penchenar <pectinäre: analogy of pencheire, penchura?
perdris = perditz $<$ perdī̀em: analogy of perdre? Cf. French perdrix.
pouzer $=$ pouze $<$ pollľ̆cem: confusion with polgar $<$ pollicare.
refreitor $=$ refeitor <refectörium : association with refreidar (freit).
renlinquir = relinquir < relïnquěre: analogy of $e-e n-$; cf. reforsar and French renforcer.

## Metathesis.

86. Metathesis is not very common in Provençal, although a few texts offer many examples; it is apparently restricted to liquids and nasals:-
cabirọl $=$ * cabriol $<$ capreŏ́lum.
cocodrilla<crocodīlum: cf. Italian coccodrillo.
craba $=$ cabra $<$ capra.
enfrondar $=$ *enfondrar $<$ French effondrer $<$ ? infünduläre.
escremir < skirm8n: cf. French escrimer.
estanc<stagnum: cf. French etang.
esturmen = estrument $<$ instrumĕntum: cf. Italian stormento.
formir $=$ fromir $<$ frumjan: cf. French formir, etc.
freïr $=$ ferir $<$ ferire .
grada $=$ garda $<$ * warda .
g repir $=$ guerpir $<$ wërpan.
lhun $=$ nulh $<$ nüllum: analogy of negun.
presseguier (also pess-) <* préssega <pěrsǐca.
rẹnc (also regne) < règnum.
```
trida<\taui\gammapıöa.
tronar<tonitruāre + thrơnus.
truọill<törculum.
trobar<?türbäre: see Körting.
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1. In ginhol $=$ genolh < genuücullum the palatalization is shifted from the liquid to the nasal. In lunh $=$ nulh $<$ nullum, on the other hand, the palatalization remains at the end of the word, but the liquid and the nasal change places.

## Dissimilation.

87. Dissimilation, like the other irregular phenomena, affects mainly liquids and nasals, particularly $r$; it is not, however, entirely confined to these classes. The two nasals, m and n , are similar enough to undergo dissimilation. Some of the cases go back to Vulgar Latin, while others are peculiar to Provençal or to Provençal and French. In the table below, a dash indicates the total disappearance of the consonant in question.

$$
\beta+\beta>\beta+-(\mathrm{v}+-): \text { habēbam }>^{*} a \beta \bar{e} a>\text { avia, * vivā }-
$$ ciārium $>$ viacier, vivācius $>$ viatz. Vianda, whatever its ultimate origin may be, was probably borrowed from French.

$\mathrm{kw}+\mathrm{kw}>\mathrm{k}+\mathrm{kw}:$ quīnque $>$ cīnque $>$ cinc.
$1+1<\mathrm{r}+1,-+1, \mathrm{~d}+1$ : calamèllum $>$ calamẹ caramel, * umbilīcŭlum > emborígol, flēbülem $>$ flẹble frẹble fẹble, ŭlulāre $>$ ulular udolar. Perhaps püs = plüs $<$ plūs is to be explained by dissimilation, occurring in such phrases as plus lare, plus lonc.
$\mathrm{m}+\mathrm{m}>\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{m}$ : memorāre $>$ membrar nembrar (renembransa).

$$
\mathrm{m}+\mathrm{n}>\mathrm{m}+\mathrm{r}: \text { * comĭnicāre }>\text { comenegar comergar, }{ }^{*} \text { indo- }
$$ mìnicātum $>$ endomeniat endomergat, mancïpium $>$ mansip massip marsip, manĭcum $>$ margue, mŏnăchum $>$ mongue morgue.

$\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{m}>\mathrm{r}+\mathrm{m}:$ anïmá> anma arma, * mĭnimāre> mermar.
$\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{n}>\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}+\mathrm{n} ;$ ? $\mathrm{d}+\mathrm{n}$ : canŏnĭcum $>$ canónegue canorgue, venēnum $>$ verin; nec ūnum $>$ negün degün? (cf. Andalusian and Asturian dengun, Catalan dingu, apparently from nec ūnum + nĭngŭlum $)$.
$\mathbf{r}+\mathrm{r}>\mathrm{r}+-,-\mathrm{r}, 1+\mathrm{r}$ : * Bernhardum $>$ Bernart Bernat, marmor $>$ marbre marme, prŏprium $>$ prọpri prọpi; diee Mércūrī (influenced by dìe Vénéris) $>$ dimẹrcres dimẹcres, grandem rem $>$ granrẹ ganrẹ, pr(eh)ĕndĕre $>$ prenre penre, prësby̆ter $>$ pręstre pestre; arb̌̆trium $>$ albire, Arvĕrnium $>$ Alvẹrnhe, peregrinus $>$ pele $(g)$ rinus $>$ peleris, pŭrpŭra $>$ polpra.
$\mathrm{s}+\mathrm{s}>-+\mathrm{s}:$ * spasmāre $>$ (espasme) pasmar (cf. French patmer), perhaps through confusion of the initial es- with the prefix ex-.
$\mathbf{t}+\mathrm{t}$ ? $>-+\mathrm{t}:$ statiōnem ? $>$ sazo (cf. French saison, Spanish sazon.

$$
\mathrm{y}+\mathrm{y}>\mathrm{y}+-: \text { *disjejūnāre }>\text { * disieunāre }>\text { *disy'nāre }>
$$ dis'nar disnar.

## III. MORPHOLOGY.

88. The most important morphological developments are common to all, or nearly all, the Romance languages. They may therefore be ascribed, in their early stages, to Vulgar Latin, although direct evidence of their beginnings is scanty.

## I. DECLENSION.

## NOUNS.

89. (1) During the late Vulgar Latin and early Romance period neuter nouns gradually became masculine; this change was doubtless due in part to phonetic developments which obliterated distinctive endings: dōnum $>$ dọn, m.; nōmen $>$ nom, $m$. Mare, however, became almost always feminine in Gaul: la mar. Some neuter plurals in $-a$, used mainly in a collective sense, were preserved and eventually became feminine singulars: fŏlium fŏlia $>$ folha, f. sg.; lignum liğna>lenha, f. sg.; so luogua, pọma, prada, beside loc, pom, prat (and, by analogy, grasa, beside gras<gradus); similarly labia>lavias, f. pl.
(2) Masculine and feminine nouns usually kept their original gender. Abstract nouns in -or, however, regularly became feminine in Gaul, other abstract nouns being mostly feminine in Latin: honōrem $>$ onor, f.; sapōrem $>$ sabor, f. With the exception of manus, which generally retained its gender, feminine nouns of the second and fourth declensions, unless they
passed into the first declension (pirus $>$ pera), became masculine, to conform to the usual $-u$ s type: fraxinus $>$ fraisnes, $\mathrm{m} . ;$ pinus $>$ pins, m. Attracted by such words as these, arbor became masculine. There were some other less important shifts.
90. Juventus, passing into the second declension, became masculine (ioven); but we find also ioventut, f. Laus became masculine in Provençal; fin, on the other hand, is always feminine. Mërüla $>$ merle, $m$. Correitz, linh, both m., occur beside correia <corrigia, linha<linea. Other similar changes might be noted. Pr. dia (also di), like Latin diès, is usually masculine.
91. Some nouns passed from the fourth to the second declension in the classic Latin period (dömus, ficus); the rest doubtless followed in Vulgar Latin (frūctus, ${ }^{1}$ gradus, manus). Fifth declension nouns in -ies went over, for the most part, to the first declension: ${ }^{2}$ dies $>$ dia, facies $>$ fassa, glacies $>$ glassa, rabies $>$ rabia; but we find also di, fatz, glatz (ratge is probably French), following the third declension type. Fifth declension nouns which did not shift to the first came to be declined after the model of the third (fides, res, spes). The five declensions were therefore reduced to three, presumably in Vulgar Latin times. Among these there were some exchanges: polvera, vergena; cf. § 89, ( 1 ), (2), i.
92. The use of cases became more and more restricted in Vulgar Latin, prepositional constructions taking the place of pure case distinction. At the beginning of the Romance period, nouns probably had, in unstudied speech, only two cases in constant use: a nominative and an accusative or ac-cusative-ablative. These two cases were generally retained

[^40]in Provençal, for the second and third declensions, until the literary period: we may call them nominative and objective.
(1) The locative, which had almost vanished in classic Latin, lingered in Vulgar Latin only in names of places. It has left no sure traces in Provençal.
(2) The vocative, in classic Latin, was like the nominative for most words; in Vulgar Latin it probably disappeared, except in Church phrases, such as $m \bar{\imath}$ dŏmìne. In Provençal we find the nominative regularly used in address (chanzos, companh, emperaire, ioglars, Papiols), although the objective occasionally occurs in its stead (barọns pl., ioglar malastrüc, trachor).
(3) The genitive, in the popular language, was little by little replaced by other constructions - commonly by the ablative with de or by the dative; the beginnings of this substitution may be observed as early as Plautus. Among Provençal nouns-aside from such learned forms as ancianor, christianor, companhor, paianor, parentor-we find remnants of the genitive only in a few compound words, as diious $<$ die Jŏvis, and in the standing phrase es mestiè <est ministërii.
(4) The dative, which in most words had the same ending as the ablative, came to be replaced, in the greater part of the Empire, by the accusative with ad ; this construction, too, goes back as far as Plautus. Provençal nouns retain no traces of the dative.
(5) The ablative, after the fall of final $\mathrm{m}(\S 55, \mathrm{M})$ and the loss of quantitive distinctions in unstressed syllables (§21), differed little or not at all from the accusative in the singular of nearly all nouns: causăm causā, dōnüm dōnō, patrĕm patrě, frūctŭm frūctū, dīèm dī̄e. Furthermore, some prepositions (especially $i n$ ) were used both with the accusative and
with the ablative. It was inevitable, then, that the two cases should be confounded in the singular, and we have evidence of such confusion as early as the first century of our era; this led gradually to a substitution of the accusative for the ablative in the plural, the accusative plural being somewhat commoner and frequently simpler than the ablative. We may, therefore, take the accusative as the basis of the Provençal objective, remembering, however, that this accusative has been more or less blended with the ablative.
(6) The two-case declension remained theoretically in use in Provençal literature through the 14th century; but in texts later than the 12 th, cases are often confused. From the spoken language the declension disappeared, in the west (as in Catalan), before the literary period; in the centre and east, probably in the 12 th century; in the north, in the 13 th. The case preserved was usually the objective, but sometimes the nominative. Some nouns in-aire-ador kept both forms, with a differentiation of meaning.
92. In the discussion of declensions some phonetic peculiarities must not be overlooked: -
(1) In the nom. pl. of the 2 d declension, a stressed e, followed in the next syllable by final $-\mathbf{i}$, would regularly give ! (cf. § 27,1 ); but the $e$ is preserved by the analogy of the nom. and obj. sg. and the obj. pl.: capīllī>cabel, mǐssī> mẹs, quētī > quẹt, sērī> sẹ. We do, however, find cabil, and (perhaps by analogy) auzil <aucěllī.
(2) In the nom. pl. of the 2 d declension, a c or g before the final -1 would regularly be palatalized (cf. § $55, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{G}$ ) ; but it is preserved from palatalization by the analogy of the other three forms: amīcī>amic, lŏng $\bar{i}>$ lonc.
(3) For the development of a $t$ between a palatal or an $n$ and a final s, see § 82, S: annos > anz, filios > filz.
(4) For the simplification of final scs, sts to cs, ts, see § 78 , 2: ${ }^{*}$ büscus? $>$ bocs, trīstes $>$ tritz.
(5) For the history of -arius and -törius, see § 23, I and § 73, Ry, 1.
93. (1) Nouns whose objective singular ended in swere invariab!e in the earlier part of the literary period; bracchium $>$ bratz, cörpus > cors, imperatrīcem $>$ emperairitz, fascem $>$ fais, latus $>$ latz, lūcem $>$ lütz, müssum $>$ mes, nasum $>$ nas, ŏpus $>$ ops, ürsum $>$ ors, pĭscem $>$ pẹis, pĕctus $>$ pẹitz, prëtium $>$ prẹtz, tĕmpus $>$ tems, vĕrsum $>$ vẹrs, vīsum $>$ vis, vöcem $>$ vọtz. Later, however, a plural (originally obj. pl.) was made for such words by adding -es, generally at a time when final ts had been reduced to $\mathrm{s}\left(\S 6_{4}\right)$ : brasses, corses, meesses, peisses, verses; examples occur as early as the end of the 12 th century.
(2) Other invariable nouns are midons, sidons, and often laus and res; the last two sometimes have an objective lau, rẹ. Midons comes from the Church Latin mī dŏmĭne, which was popularized by the substitution of the Provençal don for domine and the addition of the nom. -s ; the term was transferred from religious to feudal, and thence to amatory use, and came to mean 'my lady.' Sidons is formed on the model of midons.
(3) For nouns in tš, see § 63 , ( 1 ): * disdūctum $>$ desdüg, früctum $>$ früch, gaudium $>$ gaug, nöctem $>$ nuech. Such words were very often written in the plural with $-g z$, which was pronounced either ts or tš. The pronunciation ts is attested by such rhymes as malfagz: alumenatz.
94. Infinitives used substantively conformed to the 2 d de-
clension type: lauzars lauzar (like focs foc), rire-s rire (like fabre-s fabre): see § 96 . The same thing is true of masculine post-verbal nouns: (getar) getz get, (guidar) guitz guit, (lansar) lans (invariable).

## First Declension.

95. This declension came to include a part of the fifth and also some neuter plurals of the second and third. With the exception of dia (nearly always masculine) and of a few learned words, it contained only feminine nouns. As the nominative, accusative, and ablative singular early became identical, leaving only one form in the singular, the plural forms were reduced to one, the accusative crowding out the nominative; this substitution, which must have been begun before the Provençal period, was doubtless helped by the identity of nominative and accusative plural in feminine nouns of the third declension. Causa will serve as a model:-

| causa |
| :--- | :--- |
| causam |$>$ causa $\quad$| causa |
| :--- |$\quad$| causas causas |
| :--- |$>$ causas

1. Dia sometimes has a nom. sg. dias, following the example of other masculine nouns.
2. Many feminine proper names, in Gaul and elsewhere, developed a Low Latin declension $-a-\bar{a} n e(m)$ or $-a-\bar{e} n e(m)$, as Anna Annāne. Provençal has few traces of this inflection. The word putana $<$ ?pütida + anem $+a$ may be a remnant of it. Cf. Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 27; E. Philipon, Les accusatifs en -on et en -ain, Rom., XXXI, 201.

## Second Declension.

96. This declension came to include the fourth. With the exception of mas, 'hand' (generally feminine), it contained only masculine nouns. The different types may be illustrated by föcus, dōnum, faber:-

| focus | $>$ focs | dōnum | nus > dọns | faber | $>$ faure fabre |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| froum | $>\mathrm{foc}$ | dōnum | > don | fabrum | $>$ fabre |
| $f$ foi | $>$ foc | dōna | * dōnī $>$ dọn | fabrı̄ | $>$ fabre |
| focos | $>$ focs | dōna | * dōnos $>$ dọns | fabros | $>$ fabres |

For the c of fŏcī, see § 92, (2). For * dōmus, etc., see § 89 (r). Nom. fabre is due to the analogy of the other three cases; the $s$ of fabres is borrowed from the prevailing focs type.
I. Neuters which long preserved their gender often have no $-s$ in the nom. sg.: segle or segles. Nouns in -age from-aticum commonly have no -s: corage, damnage, message, senhorage; but forms with $-s$ occur also. Learned nouns in $-i$ from $-i u m$ regularly have no $-s$ : breviari, emperi, iuzizi, testimoni. Post-verbal nourns, on the other hand, usually take the nom. -s: albires, blasme-s, consires, desires (cf. § 94). By the analogy of the fabre-s, segle-s, blasme-s types, many masculines in -e sometimes drop the -s: clergue-s, diable-s, morgue-s, oncle-s, poble-s. Maestre, prestre regularly have no $-s$.
2. Most proper names are declined like common nouns: Arnautz Arnaut, Boecis Boeci, Enrics Enric, Lozoics Lozoic, Peire-s Peire. Many proper names, however, developed in Gaul and elsewhere, from the 9th century on, a Low Latin declension -us -ōne( $m$ ), as Petrus Petrōnis (cf. § 95, 2): hence Carle-s Carló, Peire-s Peiró, etc.; so Bergonhs Bergonhb, etc.
3. Mas, being usually feminine, has a nom. pl. mas.
4. For pagadi, salvi, soli, etc., see § 5 I , I .

## Third Declension.

97. This declension absorbed a part of the fifth: cf. § 90.
98. Nouns whose stem was different in the nominative and the accusative singular, reconstructed the nominative to correspond to the accusative, the new form being similar to the original genitive: papilio papiliōnem>papiliōnis papiliōnem, pès pédem $>$ pédis pëdem. The change began in the Vulgar Latin period. Exceptions to the rule are names of persons,
unless they ended in -ans or ens: nëpos nepōtem $>$ nẹp nebot; but amans amantem>* amantis amantem $>$ amáns amán.
99. Carnis for caro is used by classic writers. Grūis for grūs occurs in the Appendix Probi III, belonging perhaps to the $3^{\text {d }}$ century. Papiliōnis, pědis, travis =trabs, and some others are found in the 8th century Glossary of Reichenau.
100. Masculine nouns of the third declension, early in the Provençal period, made their nominative plural conform to the second declension type, thus distinguishing it from the objective plural: pater patrem patres patres $>$ paire paire paire paires (cf. Old French and Italian). Feminines, on the other hand, kept the nominative plural in -s : mater matrem matres matres $>$ maire maire maires maires.
101. A few neuter nouns, becoming masculine in Vulgar Latin, developed distinctively masculine forms in the singular: gěnus gĕnus $>$ * gěnĕris *gěnĕrem $>$ genres genre; so fülgur ( $>$ fülger) $>^{*}$ fŭlgĕrem $>$ fọuzer. Most neuters, however, kept in the singular their original stem: sèmen $>$ sem, tèmpus $>$ tems. But those in $-m e n$ regularly, and those in $-r$ sometimes, took an -s in the nominative singular: flumen flumen $>$ flüms flüm, marmor marmor $>$ marme-s marme; cor, in the literary language, usually has no nominative -s. In the plural most neuters brought their forms into harmony with the masculine type, but those in $-u s$ kept the $-s$ throughout: (caput >) capus * capum capĭta capı̆ta > caps cap cap caps, cŏr cŏr cŏrda cŏrda > cọ cơr cơr cơrs, nōmen nōmen nōmĭna nōmĭna $>$ nọms nọm nọm nọms; but cŏrpus cŏrpus cơrpŏra cŏrpŏra $>$ cors cors cors cors. Mare, becoming feminine, was declined thus: mars mar mars mars.
102. Gënus also becameges, which was used as an adverb.

IOI. The third declension comprises three principal types: (I) nouns which in Latin had no difference of stem or of
accent between the nominative and the accusative singular; (2) those which had a difference of stem but not of accent; (3) those which had a difference of accent.
(1) Nouns with no difference of stem or of accent:-
masculine

| canis >cas | pater > paire-s | sol | $>$ sol-s |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| canem $>\mathrm{ca}$ | patrem > paire | sōlem | > soll |
| canes $>\mathrm{ca}$ | patres > paire | soles | > sol |
| canes $>$ cas | patres > paires | soles | $>$ sols |
|  | FEMININE |  |  |
| finis $^{1}>$ fis | mater > maire | fides | $>$ fes |
| finem $>$ fil | matrem $>$ maire | fidem | $>\mathrm{fe}$ |
| fines $>$ fis | matres $>$ maires | fides | $>$ fes |
| fines $>$ fis | matres $>$ maires | fides | $>$ fes |

1. Masculine nouns of this type which etymologically had no -s in the nom. sg., often took one, even in the earliest times.
2. Laus and res were often invariable, but were sometimes declined like sols and fes.
(2) Nouns with a difference of stem but not of accent:-

| masculine | FEMININE | NEUTER |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pōns *porntis > ponz | pars ${ }^{\text {p partis }>\text { partz }}$ | lümen > lüm-s |
| pơntem > pon | partem $>$ part | lümen > lüm |
| porntes $\quad>$ pon | partes > partz | lümĭna $>$ lüm |
| pöntes $\quad>$ ponz | partes > partz | lūmina $>$ lüms |
| NAMES OF PERSONS |  |  |
| cormes $>$ coms | h\%mo |  |
| comitem $>$ comte | hominem $>$ | me omne ${ }^{2}$ |
| comites > comte | hŏmǐnes > | me omne |
| comites $>$ comtes | homines > | mes omnes |

1. For other neuter types, see § 100.
2. Om later developed an inflection oms om om oms.
3. Lex, rex became leis lei leis leis, reis rei rei reis.

[^41](3) Nouns with a difference of accent:-

MASCULINE

| sërmo ${ }^{\text {sermōnis }} \gg$ sermọs |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| sermönerz | $>$ sermo |
| sermōnes | $>$ sermọ |
| sermōnes | $>$ sermọs |

FEMININE

| ratio $*$ ratiōnis | $>$ razos |
| :--- | :--- |
| ratiōnem | $>$ razo |
| ratiōnes | $>$ razos |
| ratiōnes | $>$ razọs |

NAMES OF PERSONS IN -ANS, -ENS

| amans* amantis $>$ amáns |  |  | parens * parèntis > paréns |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| amantem | $>$ amán |  | parěntem >pa |  | arén |
| amantes | $>$ amán ( $f$. amáns) |  | parěntes |  | arén ( $f$. paréns) |
| amantes | $>$ amáns |  | parĕntes |  | aréns |
|  | NAMES | PERSO | NOT IN | S, -ENS |  |
| amdtor | $>$ amaire | sěnior | sennher | mưlier | $>$ molher |
| amatōrem | $>$ amador | seniörem | senhor | muliërem ${ }^{1}$ | ${ }^{1}>$ molher |
| amatōres | $>$ amador | seniöres | senhor | muliêres | $>$ molhers |
| amatōres | $>$ amadors | seniōres | senhors | muliêres | $>$ molhęrs |
| servītor | $>$ servire | baro | $>$ bar | sorror | $>$ sorre sorr ${ }^{2}$ |
| servitōrem | $>$ servidor | barōnem | $>$ baro | sorōrem | $>$ sorọ |
| servitōres | $>$ servidor | barōnes | $>$ baro | sorōres | $>$ sorors |
| servitōres | $>$ servidors | barōnes | > baros | sorōres | $>$ sorors |

1. After the same pattern as senher, we have pastor pastörem $>$ pastre pastór, etc.; after the bar pattern, * companio (Einf., § 43) * companiōnem $>$ companh companhó, * filllo (Körting) * fillōnem? $>$ fel feló, glütto ( $=$ glūto) gluttōnem $>$ glot glotó, latro latrōnem $>$ laire lairó, lĕo (treated like the name of a person) leonem $>$ leu leó, etc. On the model of amaire, servire, we find trobaire trobadór, etc., iauzire iauzidór, etc.; and, for the second and third conjugations, teneire tenedór, etc., beveire bevedór, etc. The inflection of such words became much confused, and some of them eventually developed double declensions: bars bar bar bars, barós baró baró barós; emperaires emperaire emperaire emperaires, emperadórs emperadór emperadór emperadórs. Some proper names follow the bar model: Bret Bretó, Folc-s (Folques) Folcó (later Folcós Folcó), Gasc Gascó, Uc Ugó, (later Ucs Uc) ; cf. § 96, 2.
[^42]
## ADJECTIVES.

102. What has been said concerning the inflection of nouns applies also to adjectives: see §§ 9i-10i. For pronominal adjectives see §§ 114 ff.
103. The operation of phonetic laws sometimes results in a difference in stem between the m . and the f .: bos bona, larcs larga, nutz nuda, preon preonda; mut muda, prezat prezada. For pauc pauca, rauc rauca, see § 65, C, 1. For-arius -aria,-tōrius-tōria, see § 23, 1 ; § 73, Ry, I.
104. Adjectives in -s or -s are undeclinable in the $\mathrm{m} . \mathrm{sg}$. : glorios, perfieg. Those in -s originally had no inflectional ending in the m . pl., but later they sometimes added -es: divers diverses, frances franceses. For the pl. of those in š, see § 93, (3).
105. We must recognize two classes of adjectives: (i) those which in Latin distinguish the feminine from the masculine; (2) those which do not.
r. Adjectives like acer, which, though inflected after the 3d declension type, could distinguish the m . from the f . in the nom. sg., fell into one or the other - usually the first - of the following classes (agre agra, alegre alegra; terrestre terrestre).
( 1 ) Masculine and feminine different: -
masculine feminine

| bĕllus | $>$ bels | bella | $>$ bęla |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| běllum | $>$ bel | bellam | $>$ bela |
| bellli | $>$ bel | bella * bellas | $>$ belas |
| béllos | $>$ bęls | běllas | $>$ bęlas |
| pauper | $>$ paubre-s | paupera | $>$ paubra |
| paupĕrum | > paubre | paupĕram | $>$ paubra |
| pauperri | $>$ paubre | pauperra-*as | paubras |
| paupĕros | $>$ paubres | paupĕras | $>$ paubras |

(2) Masculine and feminine alike: -
masculine
fiēlis >fezẹls
fidēlem $>$ fezẹl
fidēles >fezẹl
fidèles $>$ fezẹls
feminine
fidèlis $>$ fezẹls
fidēlem $>$ fezẹl
fidèles $>$ fezẹls
fidēles $>$ fezẹls
I. Some adjectives of the second class were attracted into the first either in Vulgar Latin or in Provençal; this happened to all adjectives in -és, -able, - ible, and also to comun, dous, fol, freble, graile, len, mol, noble, paubre (early), rude, trist: cortes cortesa, durable durabla; comuna, doussa, etc. Some kept both inflections: dolens, dolens or dolenta; grans, grans or granda, etc. So gens, gens or genta.
104. In impersonal constructions we frequently find a nominative singular without -s , which is apparently a survival of the Latin neuter: m'es bel (greu, parven, semblan, etc.) que . . . But the form with -s sometimes occurs in the same constructions: m'es greus que . . .

1. For es mestier, see § 9r, (3).
2. Most adverbs of manner were formed by adding -men (-ment, -mens, or - menz) to the feminine singular of the adjective: belamen. These adverbs were originally ablative phrases: serēna mënte, etc. In Provençal the specific meaning of the -men was forgotten, but the two parts might still be separated by an intervening word: epsa ... ment. When two adverbs in -men were used together, the ending was generally affixed to only one, oftener the first. Bona and mala could be used as adverbs without the suffix.
I. For the adverbial ending -s, see § 82, S, 3 .

## Comparison.

106. Adjectives and adverbs regularly formed their comparative by prefixing plüs to the positive, and their superlative by prefixing the definite article to the comparative: cara, plüs cara, la plüs cara. This method of comparison goes back to Vulgar Latin times.
107. 'Than' is expressed by $q u e$ and de.
108. Some adjectives preserved their old comparative in
-ior. These comparatives had an inflection similar to that of senher: cf. § roi, (3) and § 1or, (3), i.

| POSITIVE |  | Comparative |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| altus: | aut |  | aussor |
| * bellãtus = bĕllus: |  | bellaire bellázer-s | bellazọ |
| gěnitus: | gen | génser-s | gensor |
| *grĕvis = gravis: | grẹu | greuger |  |
| grössus: | gros | grueysser |  |
| laid: | lai | láiger |  |
| largus: | larc |  | largor |
| lěvis: | lẹu | lẹuger |  |
| lŏngus: | lonc |  | lonhọ |
| (grandis) : | (gran) | máier | maiọ |
| (bŏnus) : | (bon) | melher | melhor |
| (paucus) : | (pauc) | menre-s | menor |
| nūgālis: |  |  | nüalhọ |
| (malus) : | (mal) | peier | peior |
| (mültus) : | (molt) |  | plüsor ${ }^{1}$ |
| sördǐdus: | sorde | sordẹier | sordeior |

108. The following neuter comparatives were used as adverbs: gensẹis genses gensetz (<génser influenced by longẹis, sordẹis) ; longẹis longẹitz < ? ${ }^{*}$ longĭtius (<longĭter + lŏngius); mais < magis; mẹlhs<mélius; mẹns<mĭnus; pẹitz<pĕjus; sordẹis < sordüdius; viatz < vivacius. Mais, mẹlhs, mẹns, pẹitz were used also as neuter pronouns. Viatz lost its comparative sense.
109. A few adjectives, most or all of them learned, preserved the old superlative form with an intensive sense: altisme, carisme, pesme, prosme, santisme.
[^43]
## Numerals.

110. The cardinal numerals are: -

| un | onze | vint e ün | dozent |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dọs | dọtze | vint e dops | tresent |
| tres | tretze | trenta | quatre cen |
| quatre | quatọrze | quaranta | cinc cens (de) |
| cinc | quinze | cinquanta | mil |
| secis | sętze, sedze | sessanta | dos milia |
| set | detz e sett | setanta | tres melia |
| ueg | dettz e uęg | quatre vint | quatre mila |
| nọu | detz e nọu | nonanta | cinc milliers (de) |
| detz | vint, vin | cent, cen | cent miria |

111. The first two numbers were inflected as follows: -

| $u(n) s$ üna | düi dọi | dọas dọs |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ü(n) üna | dọs (düi) | dọas dọs |

Düi dọi are from Vulgar Latin $d \check{u} \imath \bar{\imath}=d u ̈ o ;$ dọs is from dŭos, dọas from dŭas. Tres has a form trẹi (originally nom. m.), patterned after düi, and a form treeis, which seems to be a cross between tres and trei. For the dialect forms of onzesetze, see $\S 76$, ( 1 ), Ndc', and $\S 80, \mathrm{Dc}^{\prime}$. Cen, multiplied by another number, took a plural form when used substantively; when used adjectively, it generally did not, but we find dozentas with a feminine noun. Mil had four plurals, milia miria melia mila; milliẹs is a noun.

1. As an example of a longer compound numeral, we have cen e quatre vint e ueg.
2. From $a m b o$ we have the obj. forms, m. and f ., $a m s$, ambas. Ambo combined with dü̃ (düos dŭas), and perhaps influenced by Pr. $a b$ (§ 65, P, 2), had this inflection:

| amdui andui abdui ambedui | amdoas |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| amdos andos abdos ambedos | amdoas |

112. The ordinal numerals had separate forms for the two genders; the masculine forms followed the second declension
type, the feminine forms, the first declension. After 5 th, they were made by adding to the cardinal numeral the originally distributive ending -ènus -èna.

| ięr, primięra | seize(n), seizena | onze( n ), onzena |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| segọn(t), segọnda | setee(n), setena | dozẹ(n), dozẹna |
| terz, teerza | ochẹ(n), ochẹna | vintẹ(n), vintena |
| quart, quarta | novẹ (n), novẹa | centẹ(n), centena |
| quint, quinta | dezẹ(n), dezẹna | milẹ(n), milẹna |

113. Beside primier we find premiẹ prümier promier (§44, $\mathbf{1}, 3$ ), and also prim and primeiran; for the developments of the ending -ier, see § 23 , x and § 73, Ry, . Tęrz, tẹrza regularly became teers, teersa ( $\S 83$, Rty). Such forms as seconda, tęrcia, seexta, octava, nọna, decima are learned.
114. As an example of a compound ordinal numeral, we have vintena tersa.

## PRONOUNS.

114. Under this head will be treated not only pronouns and pronominal adjectives, but also articles.
115. In popular Latin the personal, possessive, and demonstrative pronouns and adjectives had two sets of forms, according as they were accented or unaccented (§ 19). Ille, when stressed and used pronominally, became a disjunctive personal pronoun of the third person; when unstressed and used pronominally, it furnished the conjunctive forms of the third person; when unstressed and used adjectively, it developed into a definite article. Ipse had similar uses. These differentiations must have begun in Vulgar Latin times.
116. The declension of ille was considerably altered in Vulgar Latin. The neuter illud disappeared, being replaced by îllum. Through the influence of quī cūjus cū̄̄, *illī̀illū-
jus ${ }^{1}{ }^{i l l u ̄} \bar{i}^{1}$ came to be used beside žlle illīus illlī. The feminine had, beside illīus üllī, a genitive and dative ïllo; through the analogy of illūjus illū̄̄, žlla was expanded into illajus ${ }^{1}$ illai. ${ }^{1}$ Illīus then went out of use. In the plural, illörum (which in some regions, by the analogy of illūjus illū̄̄, had a form *illūrum) crowded out illārum; this illōrum came to be used also as a dative.

Ipse and iste followed in the main the same course as ille.

## Articles.

117. The indefinite article comes from $\bar{u} n u s$, which seems to have, been occasionally so used even in classic Latin:-

| ui $(n) s$ | üna |
| :--- | :--- |
| ü(n) | üna |

118. (1) The definite article comes from unaccented ille, which, being used as a proclitic, regularly lost its first syllable (§ 19). Ille (*illī), üllum, ǐllī, ǐllos, illla, îllas became respectively le (li), lo, li or lhi, ${ }^{2}$ los, la, las. Le, lo, li, lhi, la frequently elided their vowel before another vowel (l'an, l'arma), becoming 1 or lh . Furthermore, le, lo, li, lhi, los, in the intertonic position after a vowel (vé lo páire), regularly lost their vowel (vel páire) ${ }^{3}$; and, by analogy, la and las were sometimes reduced to $l$ and 1 s . We have, then, beside the full forms, the proclitics $1,1 \mathrm{lh}$, and the enclitics $1, \mathrm{lh}, \mathrm{ls}$. Inasmuch as 1 might be vocalized before a dental, ${ }^{4}$ the enclitics 1 and 1 s sometimes became $u$ and us (a u porter, e uz dias antix).
(2) The particles e and que, with the enclitic 1 , formed

[^44]combinations ẹl and quẹl. Quẹl, being understood as qu'el, gave rise to a form el.
(3) In the f. nom. sg. there is a form li or lhi, which is hard to explain. The most likely theory is that when the masculine $q u \bar{i}$ took the place of the feminine qua (see § 133 ), the masculine ${ }^{*}$ illī came to be used beside ${ }^{\text {ulla, }}{ }^{1}$ for the feminine. The Provençal feminine li (lhi) which resulted was strongly supported by the analogy of a feminine possessive mi , beside ma (see § 127 ). ${ }^{2}$
(4) The regular forms are, therefore, the following: -


In many texts the objective forms lo, los, ls are used in the nominative.
I. The m. obj. sg. le, obj. pl. les, which occur in a few texts, are doubtless French. So is the enclitic form $s$ for $l s$ or $u s$ : de $s$, entre $s, e s$.
2. The enclitic forms combine as follows with the prepositions $a$, con, $d e$, en, entre, iosta, per, sus, and with the conjunctions e, ni, o, que, si: al au als aus, col, del deut dels deus (des), enl el els eus, entrels, iostal, pel pels, sul suls; eil $(=e$ lhi $)$ el $(=e ~ l o)$, nils, oill $(=o l h i)$, quel, sil. They combine freely with other words: eral (=erale), fals ( $=$ fa los), etc.
119. In some southwestern and some southeastern dialects we find forms sọ, sọs, sa, sas, coming from $\quad$ ipse.

## Personal Pronouns. ${ }^{8}$

120. In Vulgar Latin ĕgo lost its $g(\S 55, G)$. The dative,

[^45]$m i ̆ h i$, was preserved only in its contracted form, $m \bar{\imath}$. After the pattern of $m \bar{i},{ }^{*} t \bar{i}$ and ${ }^{*} s \bar{i}$ were created for the other persons.
121. Provençal has no nominative forms that are regularly unaccented. In the conjunctive forms of the third person (not reflexive), the direct object is distinguished from the indirect; elsewhere there is no such distinction.

## Conjunctive Forms.

122. Latin $m \bar{e}>\mathrm{me}, m_{\bar{i}}>\mathrm{mi}, n \bar{s}>\mathrm{nọs} ; \mathrm{t}_{\bar{e}}>\mathrm{te}$, ${ }^{*} \mathrm{t} \bar{i}>\mathrm{ti}$, $v \bar{o} s>\operatorname{vos} ; s \bar{e}>\mathrm{se},{ }^{*}{ }^{\mathrm{s}} \gg \mathrm{si}$. Me mi, te ti, se si, used as proclitics before a vowel, or as enclitics after a vowel, were reduced to m, t, s: m'ama, t'apela, s'es; om, bêt, cosi s. Nos and vos, used as enclitics after a vowel, became respectively ns and us; quèns, no us; sì vōs>sius, later sieus (§ $3^{2}$ ). The forms (all objective) for the first and second persons and for the third person reflexive are, then:-

FIRST PERSON SECOND PERSON THIRD PERSON (REFLEXIVE)

Sg. : mẹ mi m
Pl.: nọs ns
tẹ tit vos us
se si s
se si s
I. The pronouns of the first and second persons could, of course, be used reflexively.
123. The conjunctive forms of the third person (not reflexive) come in the main from the proclitic zille: illi, zullum, illōrum (*illūrum), îllos, žlla, žllas became respectively li or lhi, lo, lor (lür), lọ, la, las. When used proclitically or enclitically, under the conditions described in § 118 , ( 1 ), li (lhi), lo, los were reduced to 1 ( lh ), $1, \mathrm{ls}$; and 1 was sometimes vocalized. $\mathrm{O}<$ hŏc was employed also, meaning 'it.' The adverb innde became ẹnt en n (and, through the analogy of me m, te $t$, se s, also ne), which was often used as a pro-
noun with the sense 'of it', 'of them', sometimes 'of him', 'of her'; nọs ẹn > nọn, vọs ẹn>vọn. The adverb hic became i, meaning 'here' or 'there,' which served also as a dative pronoun, 'to it,' 'to them'; it was then always an enclitic, forming a diphthong with a preceding vowel; it regularly took the place of li in the constructions lo $i=10 \mathrm{li}$, lai = la li. The forms are: -

MASCULINE

Pl. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { gen.: ent en } n \text { nẹ ent en } n \text { nẹ } \\ \text { dat.: lọ lür } \\ \text { acc. }: \text { lọs lo }\end{array}\right.$

1. Les for los is doubtless French. Los, ls were occasionally used for m . lor ; lors, which occurs rarely for lor, looks like a cross between lor and los.
2. The following combinations illustrate the use of the enclitic forms: aura i, be i, e l, laissa n, no i, qui ll, si ls.

## Disjunctive Forms.

124. Vulgar Latin *ĕo or * ĕu > ẹu iẹu (§30), which before an enclitic became e iẹ (ê 1 , iẹ $n$ ). The other forms explain themselves. The nominative tü, from the beginning of the $1^{\text {th }}$ century, was sometimes used for te after prepositions; this use may have been suggested by the existence of $1 \ddot{u}=$ 'him'; § 125, (1). Nọs + ẹn > nọn, vọs + ẹn > vọn.
first person second person third person

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Sg. }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { nom. : ęu iẹu ee- ię- } \\
\text { obj }: \text { mẹ mi }
\end{array}\right. \\
& \text { Pl. }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { nom.: nọs } \\
\text { obj.: nọs }
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

tii tẹ (ti?) tui se si vos vọs sẹ si

1. We find, besides, the French or borderland forms ie iou iu yo for eu ( $g i$ and $i e y$ have been noted also), mei tei sei for me te se.
2. The disjunctive pronouns of the third person (not reflexive) come from accented ille, with the exception of o from hŏc. Illūi, illōrum, illajus, illai lost their first syllable, perhaps through elision after a vowel; illūjus disappeared. Ille, *illi gave el elh, il ilh; el sometimes vocalized its 1 . Illū̃ became luii, in some dialects reduced to lü. Illum became el elh. Illōrum (*illürum) gave lọ (lür). Illos became els (often eus) elhs. Illa, illam both gave ela elha. Illajus became lẹis lieeis (in some dialects reduced to liẹs). ${ }^{1}$ Illai gave lẹi (dialectically lẹ) liẹi. Illas became ẹlas ẹlhas.
(2) In the feminine singular nominative there is, beside ela elha, a form ilh il. This is probably to be explained, like the feminine article lhi li, as coming from the masculine nominative *illī introduced into the feminine, and supported by the feminine possessive mi: see $\S 118$, (3).
(3) Some dialects preserve the final -i of eli (m. pl. nom.) and ilhi ili (f. sg. nom.): see $\S_{51}$, 1 .
(4) Occasionally the conjunctive li (f. sg. obj.) and lo (neuter sg. nom.) were used as disjunctive forms. And sometimes the masculine lüi lü was used for the feminine.
(5) The forms are, therefore, the following: -

|  | masculine | feminine nie | neuter |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | \{nom.: ẹl ẹu elh il ilh | ela elha ilh il ilhi ili | el lọ |
|  | \{obj.: lüi lü ẹ elth | lęis lięis lięs lęi lięi lę ẹla li lüi lui | ii $\%$ |
|  | $\{$ nom.: il ilh el elh eli | elas elhas |  |
|  | \{obj.: lọr lür els eus elhs | lọr lür elas ẹlhas |  |

In many texts the objective forms els elhs, leeis lei are used

[^46]in the nominative. We then find occasionally a new objective, elses.

## Possessives.

126. Beside měus mĕa, tŭus tŭa, sŭus sŭa, there existed in popular Latin the shorter forms * mĕs? * ma, *tŭs *ta, sŭs sa. Of the two forms vĕster and voster, only the latter was used. To supply the lack of a third person possessive denoting a plural possessor, illörum came to be employed as a possessive.

## Singular Possessive.

127. (1) The primarily atonic possessives come from the shorter Latin forms. The original masculine singular forms of the first person were displaced by mos mo, made on the analogy of tọs tọ, sọs sọ, which come regularly from * tüs *tüm, sŭs, sŭm; so in the objective plural we find mos, corresponding to tọs<*tōs, sọs<sōs. Mŭ̄̄, tŭū, sŭū gave męi, tọi tüi, soi süi (§34), which, however, were often replaced by the objective forms. *Ma * mam * mas, ${ }^{*}$ ta *tam ${ }^{*}$ tas, sa sam sas became ma mas, ta tas, sa sas; ma, ta, sa often elided their a before a vowel. The formation of midons has been explained in §91, (2); §93, (2); §118, (3): from it came a feminine singular possessive mi, and, by analogy, ti and si.
(2) The forms are:-

FIRST PERSON SECOND PERSON THIRD PERSON


They are generally used only adjectively, and without the definite article. In some early texts, however, tọs and sos, preceded by the article, are used substantively.
128. (1) The primarily tonic possessives come from the longer Latin forms. Mĕus mĕum mĕi mĕos $>$ mẹus mẹu mẹi mẹus, which regularly became miẹus etc. ( $\S 30$ ); an analogical form miẹu is found beside miẹi. In the feminine of the first person we have, instead of * mea, mieua and mia: the first of these two forms is evidently made up from the masculine; the second may be due partly to the analogy of mi, partly to a proclitic use of the word $(\$ 44,4) .^{1}$ In the second and third persons the masculine forms are mainly, and the feminine forms partially, replaced by analogical formations based on the possessive of the first person; tŭu, sŭi, tŭa, sŭa, however, give regularly tọi tüi, sọi süi, tọa tua, sọa sua (§8).
(2) The forms follow, those of the third person (which correspond exactly to those of the second) being omitted: -

FIRST PERSON
Sg. $\begin{cases}\text { nom.: męus mięus } & \text { mia mięua } \\ \text { obj.: męu mięu } & \text { mia mięua }\end{cases}$
Pl. $\begin{cases}\text { nom.: mę miẹi mięu } & \text { mias miẹuas } \\ \text { obj.: } & \text { męus mięus }\end{cases}$
mias mięuas

SECOND PERSON
Sg. $\begin{cases}\text { nom. }: \text { teeus tieeus } & \text { tọa tua tiẹua tia } \\ \text { obj. : tẹu tiẹu } & \text { tọa tua tiẹua tia }\end{cases}$
Pl. $\begin{cases}\text { nom.: tọi tüi tei tięi tiẹu } & \text { tọas tuas tiẹuas tias } \\ o b j \text { : } & \text { teeus tiẹus }\end{cases}$
They may be used adjectively or substantively, with or without the definite article.
r. We occasionally find a neuter sg. nom. form without final $-s$ : lo mieu.

## Plural Possessor.

129. Nöster, vöster developed regularly after the pauper

[^47]model: §ro3, (r). The masculine singular nominative often took an -s: cf. §96; §ior, ( r ). Some southeastern dialects preserved the -i of nostri: cf. $\S_{51}$, r. Beside vostra we occasionally meet vostri, due to the analogy of feminine mi, ti, si.

FIRST PERSON
Sg. $\left\{\begin{array}{lllllll}\text { nom. }: & \text { nostre-s } & \text { nọstra } & \text { vọstre-s } & \text { vọstra vǫstri } & \text { lọ lür } & \text { lọr lür } \\ \text { obj.: } & \text { nostre } & \text { nǫstra } & \text { vosstre } & \text { vọstra vọstri } & \text { lọr lür } & \text { lọr lür }\end{array}\right.$ Pl. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { nom. : nọstrenọstri nọstras } \\ \text { vọstre } \\ \text { vọstras lọr lür lọr lür }\end{array}\right.$ \{obj.: nọstres nǫstras vọstres vǫstras lọr lür lọr lür
These forms are used adjectively or substantively, with or without the definite article.

1. In later times lor came to be inflected like a one-gender adjective: § $103,(2)$.

## Demonstratives.

130. Latin idem went out of use. Latin is was preserved
 the combination éccum, in which it ceased to be recognized, so that ěccu' was regarded as a synonym of ĕcce.
131. (1) The demonstrative particles ĕcce and ĕccu' were often prefixed to pronouns in Vulgar Latin. Being thus proclitically used, they frequently lost their first syllable (§ig); sometimes, however, under the influence of $a c$ (as in $a c s i c>$ aissi), they preserved it, assuming the vowel of ac: ecce illa $>$ aicela, eccu' issta > aquẹsta; cf. §43, (2).
(2) The suffix -met was used in Vulgar Latin as an intensive prefix. Its change of place was probably due to such phrases as sèmet ïpsum, understood as sē metïpsum. The $-t$, before a vowel, regularly gives -d- (met-ĭpsum>medes); but we find, besides, $-z-(<$ Lat. $d)$, introduced perhaps through

$-t-(<$ Lat. $t$ ) , which may be the result of a combination of

132. The pronouns preserved, either in their simple form or combined with a prefix, are the following: -
( 1 ) Of hic only the neuter, hŏc, was kept. Hŏc $>0$; ecce hŏc> aiço aissoc, and ço só; eccu' hŏc> aquọ aco. All of these are invariable.
(2) Ipse appears as eps epsa, eus eussa, eis eissa (with a $\mathrm{m} . \mathrm{pl}$. ẹisses and a neuter eis) ; the last forms are the commonest; for the development of the $p s$, see § 79 and §80, Ps. Met-ïpse gives (medips) medes, (metẹish) metẹis, and, more commonly, mezẹis (f. mezẹissa, neuter mezẹis); see §ı 3 I, ( 2 ). *Met-ipsimus becomes medesme-s, mesesme-s, meesme-s ( $\S 65$, D), with feminine forms in -a. Unaccented ipsum is probably one source of the neuter so: cf. § $\mathbf{1 3 2}^{2}$, ( I ). For the article (so, sa), see §irg.
(3) Ille, uncombined, developed into an article (§ 118 ) and a personal pronoun ( $\$ \S 123,125$ ), but went out of use as a demonstrative. Combined with ecce and eccu' it gave: aicel aissel, cel, sel; aquel. Echẹl (pronounced ekẹl?) seems to come from eccu' ille with its original initial vowel preserved. Ipse alle perhaps gave rise also to a sel, which ultimately coincided with the form coming from ecce ille. There is a neuter aicelo, perhaps aicel +o . Cel will illustrate the inflection of all these words; the forms are to be explained like those of the disjunctive personal pronoun (§125):-

MASCULINE FEMININE
Sg. $\left\{\begin{array}{lll}\text { nom. : cel cẹu celh cells }{ }^{1} \text { celluii cela celha cil cilh cilha }{ }^{2} \\ \text { obj.: } & \text { cẹl cẹu celh celliui } & \text { cela celha celẹi celẹis celiẹis cilh }\end{array}\right.$

[^48]
## MASCULINE

P1. $\left\{\right.$ nom.: cil cilh celh cẹls ${ }^{1}$ oobj.: cels celhs ${ }^{2}$

FEMININE
celas celhas
celas celhas
(4) Iste gave est, estz, esta, estas. Ecce iste became aicest (not common) and cest sest; eccu' iste became aquest echest, and chest. Aquest will illustrate the inflection; the forms are to be explained like those of cel : -
-MASCULINE
Sg. $\begin{cases}\text { nom. }: & \text { aquest } \\ \text { obj.: } & \text { aquẹst }\end{cases}$
Pl. $\left\{\begin{array}{lll}\text { nom.: aquist aquisti } \\ \text { obj.: } & \text { aquẹstz } & \text { aquetz }\end{array}\right.$

FEMININE

Interrogatives and Relatives.
133. The interrogative and relative pronouns were confused and combined in Vulgar Latin, quī taking the place of qǔ̌s, and quĭd gradually encroaching on quŏd. Furthermore, the masculine forms were used instead of the feminine, which disappeared. We have in Provençal no evidence of the survival of any other cases than the nominative, dative, and accusative singular and the nominative plural: -

MASCULINE AND FEMININE

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Sg. } \begin{cases}\text { nom.: qui }>\text { qui } & \text { quid }>\text { que, (before vowel) quez } \\
\text { dat.: cuī }>\text { cuii } & \text { cūi }>\text { cuii } \\
\text { acc.: quěm }>\text { que } & \text { quid }>\text { que, (before vowel) quez }\end{cases} \\
& \text { Pl., nom.: qui >qui }
\end{aligned}
$$

The distinction between que $<q u e ̆ m$, que quez $<$ quĭd, and que < que could not be maintained; we have, then, simply three forms: a nom. sg. or pl. qui, a nom.-acc. sg. or pl. que (quęz), a dat. sg. or pl. cüi (sometimes written qui).

[^49]134. We have also qualis, which came to be inflected like fezels: see § 103 , (2); the feminine singular, however, often dropped its -s , and sometimes took the ending -a (cal, cala). Quinam apparently became quina, which, understood as a feminine form, developed a masculine, quin. There seems to have been also a *quiniam (cf. quŏniam?), which gave quinh, quinha. Cf. D. Behrens in the Zeitschrift für französische Sprache, XVII, ii, 67-8, footnote. The phrase de ünde became dọnt, dọn, which was often used with the meaning 'of which', 'of whom'.
135. (1) In Provençal the interrogative pronouns are: qui, 'who 'or 'whom'; que quez, 'what'; cuii, 'to whom' or 'whom', 'to what' or 'what' (obj.) ; cals (either alone or preceded by the definite article, inflected as in § 134), 'which'; quin quinh, quina quinha, 'which'. Cals is used also as an adjective.
(2) The relative pronouns are: qui, 'one who', indefinite (used also, in early texts and in southwestern Languedoc, as the regular relative pronoun for persons) ; que quez, 'who' or 'whom', 'which'; ciii, 'whom', 'which' (generally used as indirect object of a verb, or after a preposition) ; 10 cals (inflected as in § I 34), 'who' ('whom'), 'which'; don dont, 'of which', 'of whom'.

## Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives.

136. The following words call for special mention:-
(1) Alcuis $<^{*}$ alı̆qu' ūnus $=$ aľ̆qū̀ ūnus, 'someone'. Inflection: alcüs, alcü(n); alcüna.
(2) Alquant <aliquantum, aliquanti, 'somewhat', 'some'; diminutive, alquantet.
(3) Alques alque $<$ alĭquĭd, used as an invariable neuter
pronoun or adverb, 'something', 'somewhat'. The -s form, which originally developed before a vowel, was preferred because of the analogy of other neuter pronouns and adverbs. The preservation of the $e$ is due to association with quez que. Alque was sometimes used as an adjective.
(4) Als al au, used as an invariable neuter pronoun, 'something else'. Al (au) may have been detached from alques, understood as al ques. Meyer-Lübke, however, takes it, as well as Old French el, from *alum = aliud: Gram., II, p. 649. Als owes its -s to the analogy of other neuter pronouns, such as alques, ẹis, mais, mẹlhs, mẹns, pẹis, etc.
(5) Altre autre < alter, 'other', pronoun and adjective. A dative *altrū̀̄, following illū̄̄, goes back to Vulgar Latin. The Provençal forms autrüs, autrü show the influence of alcüs and negüs; autri belongs to the southeastern dialects (cf. aquẹli, eli, nọstri, tüti, etc.). Inflection:-

MASCULINE
Sg. $\begin{cases}\text { nom.: autre autres autrüs } \\ \text { obj.: autre autruii autrii }\end{cases}$
Pl. $\begin{cases}\text { nom. }: & \text { autre autri } \\ \text { obj.: } & \text { autres }\end{cases}$

FEMININE autra autra autras autras
(6) Altretals autretals <alter talis; by dissimilation, atretals: by substitution of ai- (first syllable of aissi<ac sic) for atre-, aitals; by fusion of aitals and atretals, aitretals; through analogy of atressi, atrestals. Cf. § 74, 2. Inflection like that of cals (§ 134 ).
(7) Altretan atretan aitan atrestan etc. <alter + tantum: see altretals.
(8) Cada un <катá + ūnum, 'every one'. The Greek preposition кaтá was introduced into the Latin territory, probably by Greek merchants, in stating prices: каӨ'є $\alpha=$ cata ūnum,
$\kappa a \tau \grave{\alpha} \tau \rho \epsilon i ̂ s=$ cata trēs; hence cada ün, cada trẹi. Inflection: cada üs, cada ü(n); cada üna.
(9) Calacom qualacom qualaquom, 'something', 'a little', seems to be a Provençal compound of cal and aco (§ $13_{2}$ ), the last syllable of which was perhaps understood as com co $<q u o ̄ m o ̆(d o)$. Cf. quezacom below. There is a diminutive calacomet, which helped to maintain the m of calacom.
(io) Cals que quals que, cal que qual que, 'whoever', is a Provençal compound.
(II) Cant quant can quan <quantum quanti, 'how much', 'how many'. Cant, inflected like bel (§ Io3), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.
(12) Casciis chasciis, 'everyone', 'every', appears to be a fusion of cada üs and **escüs < ${ }^{*}$ cisqu' ünus = quǐsque ùnus $=\bar{u} n u s$ quĭsque. Inflection: cascüs, cascü(n); cascüna.
(13) Ent en n ne<inde, 'some': cf. § 123.
(14) Maint mant man manh < Celtic * mantî, 'many', 'many a', 'many a one'. Obj. pl. in -s, f. sg. in -a, f. pl. in -as.
( 15 ) Molt mout mot mul mon < mŭltum, 'much'. For mọt, mul, mọn, see $\S 74$, (2) and $\S 74$, i. Mọlt, inflected like bel (§ 103 ), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.
(16) Negüs < nĕc ünus, 'no one'. Inflection: negüs, negü(n); negüna. Beside negün we find degün, apparently through dissimilation.
(17) Nüls < nūllus, 'no', 'none'. Inflection: nüls, nül, nül nülh, nüls; nüla, nülas. From nülh <nūllī comes a set of forms with 1 lh : see $\S 67$, (2). Hence, by metathesis suggested by the analogy of negün, lhün. A fusion of nülh and lhün results in lünh, whence a set of forms with $n h$.
(18) $0 \mathrm{~m}<$ hŏmo, 'one'.
(19) Pauc < pancum, pauci, 'little', 'few'. There is also a regular adjective, paucs, 'small'.
(20) Que que, 'whatever', is a Provençal compound.
(21) Quecs <quǐsquis $(\S 78,2)$, 'everyone'. From quecs were formed an objective quec and a feminine quega (cf. amics amic amiga).
(22) Quesacom (diminutive quesacomet), 'something', 'a little', is formed like calacom above, the first element in this case being either ques <quid or quee $s=$ que es.
(23) Qui que, 'whoever', is a Provençal compound.
(24) Res re, 'anything', 'something.
(25) Tals <talis, 'such', inflected like cals (§ 134 ).
(26) Tamanh <tam magnum, 'so great'; f. tamanha.
(27) Tant tan ta<tantum, tanti, 'so much', 'so many'. Tant, inflected like bel ( $\S 103$ ), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.
(28) Totz<tōttus = tōtus (Gram., I, § 547), 'all', had a regular inflection: tọtz, tọt, tọt, tọtz; tọta, tọtas. In the masculine nominative plural, however, we find oftener the forms tüch tüich tüit tüt tüti, which point to a Latin * tūctī (cf. Italian tutti); for this no satisfactory explanation has been discovered (see Nigra, Rom., XXXI, 525). Hence we occasionally have in the singular tütz, tüt, and in the objective plural tügz tütz; the last form occurs also as a nominative plural. Tot is frequently used as a neuter pronoun and as an adverb.
(29) Üs, 'some'; from ünus, used as an indefinite adjective or pronoun, we have the plural forms: $\ddot{u}(n), \ddot{u}(n) s$; ünas.

## 2. CONJUGATION.

## THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

137. (1) In Vulgar Latin there were some shifts, the verbs of the second and third conjugations being particularly unstable: caděre, cap̄ěre, sapĕre, for instance, often passed into the second, while mövēre, rīdēre frequently followed the third, and mŏri, sĕqui usually went into the fourth. Pŏsse, vélle, with the new infinitives * potēre, * volēre, were made to conform with more or less regularity to the second conjugation type. Beside do, dant, sto, stant, there came into use the forms * dao, * daunt, * stao, * staunt. Beside facerre there doubtless existed a verb ${ }^{*}$ fare, ${ }^{1}$ strongly influenced by dare and stare; the first suggestion of shortening probably came from the monosyllabic imperative singular $f a c$ (or $f a^{2}$ ), which must have led to a plural *fate beside facĭte. Habēre and vadëre ${ }^{2}$ also came under the influence of dare and stare; the former adopted, beside habeo, habes, habet, habent, the forms *ho, *has, *hat, * hant or *haunt. Vaděre generally lost its past tenses, which were replaced by ire and, in southern Gaul, by annare. ${ }^{8}$
(2) In Provençal the first conjugation was well preserved, and the fourth lost but little. The second and the third lost many verbs (especially learned words) to the fourth: delir, emplir, envazir, espandir, fugir, iauzir, merir, regir, relinquir, reluzir, vertir; ${ }^{4}$ cozer cozir < consuĕre, ${ }^{5}$ devire devezir < divīdĕre, dire dir < dīcĕre, leire legir (also lire lir) < lĕgĕre, quẹrre querir <quarēre, segre seguir < sëqui, tenẹ tenir ${ }^{6}$ <tenēre. More-

[^50]over, the second and third conjugations, which in Provençal differed practically only in the infinitive, were much confused: caber, cazer, mơrdre, rire, saber; corre accorrer, mentaver mentaure < mente habēre, mover moure, quęrre querẹ, redebre rezemẹ < redïmĕre. Uc Faidit, a $13^{\text {th }}$ century grammarian, enumerates about 500 verbs in -ar, about 100 in -er and -re, and a little over 100 in -ir.
138. The inchoative ending -scĕre lost its original sense. The - $\bar{s} s$ c type, for verbs of the fourth conjugation, was very widely extended, the -isc-becoming a part of the regular present stem of the fourth conjugation, and disappearing from the infinitive: finīre, ${ }^{*}$ finīsco > finir, finisc. The Latin -ésc- type, combining with -ire (dis-pigrēscĕre > despereissir, evanéscěre $>$ envanezir ${ }^{1}$ ), produced an ending -eissir -ezir -zir, which was used in forming some new verbs: enfolezir ${ }^{2}<$ fol, envelhezir < velh, envelzir < vil, esclarzir < clar, escürzir < escür oscür, espaorzir < paor. The $-\bar{a} s c-$ and $-\bar{o} s c-$ types appear only in such old verbs as irāscëre $>$ iráisser, co $(g)$ nöscĕre $>$ conoisser. ${ }^{8}$
139. New verbs were formed, in late Vulgar Latin and in Provençal, only in the first and fourth conjugations. The commonest suffixes were - $\overline{a r e},-i \bar{a} r e,-i c a ̄ r e, ~ i d i a ̄ r e ~(<i \zeta \epsilon \iota v: ~ § 57, ~$ Z), -īre: * oblītāre >oblidar, * altiāre > aussar, * carricāre > cargar, * werridiāre > guerreiar, * abbellīre > abelir. Germanic verbs generally went into the first conjugation, except those in -jan, most of which entered the fourth: roubôn $>$ raubar (also raubir), wîtan $>$ guidar; furbjan $>$ forbir, raustjan $>$ raustir.

[^51]
## FUNDAMENTAL CHANGES IN INFLECTION.

140. The Latin perfect passive took the sense of a present; amãtus est, for instance, under the influence of such phrases as carus est, came to mean 'he is loved'. This led to the establishment of an entire passive inflection made up of the perfect participle and the parts of the verb ésse; and the old passive forms were gradually abandoned, leaving no trace (save the perfect participle and possibly the gerundive) in the Romance languages. So the passive is constructed in Provençal as in French: es amatz, ẹra amatz, fọ amatz, será amatz, etc.; the participle regularly agrees with the subject in gender and number. Latin deponent verbs became active: mŏri> morir, sĕqui $>$ seguir.
141. (1) Such phrases as žd habeo factum shifted their meaning from 'I have it done', etc., to 'I have done it', etc. The Latin perfect came to be restricted to its aorist sense, and the perfect was expressed by compounds of habēre with the perfect participle. In the Romance languages all compound tenses were eventually formed in this way: ai cantat, avia cantat, aurai cantat, etc. In Provençal the auxiliary is sometimes esser, instead of aver, if the main verb is reflexive, passive, or neuter; esser is particularly common with neuter verbs of motion: soi vengütz. ${ }^{1}$ A participle used with aver may agree in gender and number with the direct object, if there is one: ai cantat or cantada la canso.
(2) The Latin perfect indicative continued to be used as an aorist, and is the source of the preterit in Provençal, as in

[^52]the other Romance languages: vīdī>vi, 'I saw'. The pluperfect indicative survived in some regions; in Provençal it is used with the sense of a conditional: füĕrat $>$ fora, 'he would be'. The future perfect indicative and the perfect subjunctive did not remain in Provençal: amavěro = aurai amat, amavĕrim = aia amat. The pluperfect subjunctive assumed the functions of the imperfect, which disappeared from nearly every part of the Romance territory: audīssem (for audīrem) $>$ auzis. The perfect infinitive left no trace: audisse $=$ aver auzit.
142. The Latin future, which was not uniform in the four conjugations, and, in the third and fourth, was liable to confusion with the present subjunctive, was gradually replaced by various periphrastic constructions: instead of faciam people said factūrus sum, dēbeo facĕre, vŏlo facĕre, habeo (ad) facĕre, etc. The construction that prevailed in the greater part of the Empire was facerre habeo, a combination of the infinitive with the present indicative of habēre. The verb ësse was the only one that ultimately retained the old future beside the new: Pr. ęr, ęrs, ęr, beside serái serás será ; in the plural, only serẹ, seretz, serán. The new composite future was occasionally used by Tertullian, St. Jerome, and St. Augustine, and became common in Italy by the 6th century. ${ }^{1}$
(2) As an imperfect of the future, there was evolved a combination of the infinitive and the imperfect or perfect indicative. To correspond to dīcit quod venïre habet, was constructed dīxit quŏd venīre habēbat (or habuit); to match sī pŏssum, venīre habeo, was made sī potuǐssem, venīre habēbam (or habuī). In Gaul, as in most of the Empire, only the imperfect of habēre was used for this purpose. Traces of such

[^53]a construction are found as early as the 3 d century. This form is generally called the conditional, and it existed in Provençal side by side with the conditional described in §r4I, (2): sería, serías, sería, etc., beside fọra, fọras, fọra, etc. The Romance languages developed also a perfect conditional: auría agüt $=$ ' $I$ should have had'.
143. (1) The present participle remained in use as an adjective: fillias placentes $>$ filhas plazens; cf. § ror, (3). In its verbal function it was replaced by the ablative of the gerund: vënit accürrens $>$ vĕnit accürrendo $>$ ven acorrẹ. In most Provençal dialects, however, the present participle and the gerund coincided in form (amantem and amando both > amán), the gerund being distinguished from the participle only by its lack of inflection: see § 76 , (2).
(2) The gerund retained only the ablative case, the use of which was considerably extended: see above. In its other cases it was replaced by the infinitive: artem dīeendì $>$ artem dī̀ére $>$ art de dire. The supine, too, was replaced by the infinitive: vīsum vènit nōs > vènit nōs vǐdēre $>$ ven nọs (a) vezer.

## INFINITIVE, PRESENT PARTICIPLE, AND GERUND.

144. The infinitive endings - $\bar{a} r e$, -ēre, -ire regularly became -ar, -er, -ir; -ĕre became -re or -er: see § 48 , ( 1 ) and § $5^{2}$, (1). Ex.: amāre > amár, vīdēre > vezẹ, audīre >auzir; töllère $>$ tolre, nascěre $>$ náisser, dicere $>$ dire dízer. For shifts of conjugation, see § 137 .
I. The fourth conjugation verbs enantir, gauzir, grazir, murir, servir sometimes took a final e by the analogy of devire (<divūdëre), dire, rire. On the other hand, dire occasionally lost its $\varphi$ by the analogy of the fourth conjugation. Lire for leire (<lĕgëre) is probably French, and lir is to be explained like dir.
145. Far beside faire doubtless comes from * fare = facëre: see § 137 , ( 1 ). Trar beside traire (<*tragëre) follows far.
146. Escriure ( $<$ scrïbĕre) sometimes became escrire through the analogy of dire.
147. Some verbs that passed from the second to the third conjugation preserved the old infinitive as a noun: debēre $>$ deure devér, placēre $>$ plaire plazér.
148. The endings -antem -ando, -ĕntem -ĕndo regularly became -an or -ant, -en or -ent: § 76, (2). See § 143, (1). The endings -iëntem -iĕndo lost their i in Vulgar Latin (§ 40 , 1), and were thus reduced to -entem-endo. Ex.: amantem amando $>$ amán (or amánt), vidĕntem vidĕndo $>$ vezén (or vezént), credĕntem credĕndo $>$ crezén (or crezént); sapiëntem sapiëndo $>$ * sapëntem * sapĕndo $>$ sabén (or sabént), partiëntem partiĕndo $>$ *partentem *partendo $>$ partén (or partént). Fourth conjugation verbs which adopted the inchoative -sc(§ $13^{8}$ ), generally introduced it into the present participle and the gerund: florir, florissen. Cf. § 155 . For the declension of the present participle, see § ıor, (3).

## PAST PARTICIPLE.

146. The Provençal past participle comes from the Latin perfect participle. It is to be noted that verbs which originally had no perfect participle were obliged to create one in order to form their compound tenses: see § 141, ( 1 ). Past participles in Provençal, when inflected, were declined like bel: §§ 102; 102, 1 ; 103, ( 1 ). See § 141, ( 1 ).
147. In the first and fourth conjugations the endings were -ātum and -itum, which regularly became -at and -it: cantātum $>$ cantát, finītum $>$ fenít. The first conjugation verbs which had a form in -itum discarded it for -ātum: crepāare cręp̄itum $=$ crebár crebát. On the other hand, aperire and
operire preserved their participle in -ĕrtum: cubrir (<cooperīre), cubert (also cubrít) ; ubrír (<aperīre + cooperīre), ubert. By the analogy of these, sufrir (<sufferre) and ufrir (<offérre) have sufert (also sufrít), ufert. Tenẹ tenir keeps its Provençal second conjugation ending, tengüt (see § 148); and venir, following the analogy of tenir, has vengüt.
148. (1) Most Latin verbs of the second and third conjugations had no accented ending, but a few had an ending -ūtum, which corresponded very well to the - $\bar{a} t u m$ and $-\bar{i} t u m$ of the first and fourth: arguĕre, argūtum; consuĕre, consūtum; sĕqui, secūtum; solvěre, solūtum; volvĕre, volūtum. This ending was considerably extended in Vulgar Latin, especially to verbs having a perfect in -ŭū: habēre, habŭū, habĭtum * habūtum. In Provençal it spread still further: cazer, cazec, cazegüt. Inasmuch as it was closely associated with the perfect, it came to be attached, more and more frequently, to the stem of that tense.
(2) Of the Provençal verbs of the second and third conjugations, about half adopted the ending -üt. In some the -üt is added to the stem of the infinitive: crezüt, defendüt, escondüt, molüt, perdüt, resemüt, respondüt, rompüt, vendüt, vezüt veüt. Most of the verbs, however, attach the -üt to the stem of the preterit; nasc, nascüt; pasc, pascüt; tems, temsüt; tesc, tescüt; venc, vencüt (from vẹnser); visc, viscüt. A few have both forms: agüt avüt; cazegüt cazüt; vengüt venüt. It is to be noted, in the case of verbs that add -üt to the preterit, that if the third person singular of the preterit ends in a voiceless consonant preceded by a vowel or 1 or $n$, that consonant is voiced in the participle: ac, agüt; bec, begüt; cazec, cazegüt; conọc, conogüt; crẹc, cregüt; dẹc, degüt; elẹc, elegüt; moc, mogüt; nọc, nogüt; plac, plagüt; ploc, plogüt; pọc, pogüt; remas, remazüt; saup, saubüt; sęc, següt; tẹnc, ten-
güt; tolc, tolgüt; valc, valgüt; vẹnc, vengüt (from venir); volc, volgüt. Exceptions are ceupüt, saupüt (beside saubüt), and vencüt (from vẹnser) : for ceupüt, saupüt, cf. § $65, \mathrm{P}, 3$; in vencüt the c was perhaps kept to distinguish the word from vengüt (venir).
(3) The other half of the second and third conjugation verbs generally preserved the old participle with no accented ending: ars, cẹing, claus, dich, düit, estrẹit, fach, iọinch, mẹs, onh, post, pres, trach, etc. Some of these have also forms in -üt: defẹs defendüt, elig eslẹit elegüt, escos escondüt, mout molüt, nat nascüt, remas remazüt, rọt rompüt, vis vezüt. A few verbs made up new forms without a stressed ending: conquęrre, conquẹs conquis; redemer rezemer, redems (rezemüt); sơrger, sors; tọlre, tọlt tơt; vezẹ, vist (vis vezüt veüt); volvre, vout. Mittĕre probably had beside mǐssum a form * mīsum (cf. mīsī) ; hence mẹtre, mẹs mis. By the analogy of this, prendre has beside pres a form pris. Estre borrowed estát from estar < stare. Escriut, from escriure, is probably influenced by the infinitive; escrich follows dich. So, probably, does elig = esleeit, from elegir eslire eslir.
149. For sọi agütz (=ai estat), which is found not only in some Provençal dialects, but also in southeastern France, French Switzerland, and parts of northern Italy, see § I4I, (I), footnote I.

## FUTURE AND NEW CONDITIONAL.

149. For the formation of these parts, see § 142 , ( 1 ), (2). Ex.: amarái, creisserái, florirái. Verbs of the second conjugation regularly, and verbs of the fourth very often, syncopate the e or i of the infinitive: remanrái, volrás; partrái, venría. Third conjugation infinitives with final e drop this e before the ending; those in -er keep the e: vẹndre, vendrái; náisser, naisserái. First conjugation infinitives regularly keep the a
(§45), but in a few texts (especially the Girart and the Rasos de trobar) the a is changed to e: cantarái, sonaría, trobarẹm; blasmerán, comterá.
I. Esser keeps the old future forms er, ers, er, beside serái, serás, será (serém, serêtz, serán).
150. For the phonetic changes exemplified in auría, deurái, mourá; plairía; cairá, veirái; valdrái; remandrém, tendría;
 has beside anarái a form irái from ir (<ire). Esser drops its first syllable (serái), perhaps through elision (tu 'sserás, etc.), perhaps in accordance with the general principle stated in § 19. Faire far always makes its future and conditional from the latter form (farái). Saber has beside sabrái a form saubrái, due no doubt to the combined influence of aurái and the preterit saup<sapuit. Vezer, following the analogy of beurái, deurái, viurái, has veurái beside the regular veirái.

15I. The composite nature of the future and conditional was still sufficiently felt, in the literary period, to admit of the separation of the component parts: amar vos ái, dar n'etz, donar lo t'ai, tornar nos ẹ, tornar s'en ía.

## Future Endings.

152. For the rst pers. sg., the Provençal verb used the form *ayo $>$ ai ( $\S 73, \beta \mathrm{y}$ ); for the 2 d and 3 d pers. sg. and the $3^{\mathrm{d}}$ pers. pl., the forms *has $>\mathrm{as}$, *hat $>\mathrm{a}(\S 82, \mathrm{~T})$, *hant * haunt $>$ an aun (§83, Nt): see § 137, ( x ). In the 1st and 2 d pers. pl., habèmu' (§82, S, 2), habētis naturally gave avẹ, avẹtz (§64); but inasmuch as the other four terminations were monosyllabic, the av- was dropped when avẹm, avettz came to be understood merely as future endings. The future is, therefore, inflected as follows:-

| cantar-ái | cantar-ém |
| :--- | :--- |
| cantar-ás | cantar-eetz, -ẹ, -ẹt |
| cantar-á | cantar-án, -ánt, -áun, -áu |

1. In Gascony and Languedoc we find -ei for -ai: see $\S \S 23,2 ; 162$, (4). In Gascon and in the modern dialects of some other regions -am is used for em. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -ẹm becomes -ẹn: cf. § 65, M, $\mathbf{~ ; ~ a l s o ~ § ~ 1 6 7 , ~} 2$.

## Conditional Endings.

153. Habēbam $>\mathrm{a} \beta \mathrm{e} \beta \mathrm{a}>$ (probably through dissimilation: $\S 87, \beta$ ) aßẹa > avía (§ 26); so avías, avía, aviám, aviátz, avían. But inasmuch as the conditional was formed in imitation of the future, and none of the future forms retained the av-, the conditional endings were reduced to -ía, -ías, -ía, -iám, -iátz, -ían. Some dialects, which substituted -on for -an, introduced -íon into the conditional: § 169. The conditional is, therefore, inflected as follows:-

| cantar-ía | cantar-iám |
| :--- | :--- |
| cantar-ías | cantar-iátz,-iás, -iát |
| cantar-ía | cantar-ían, -íon, -ío |

1. In verse these endings are sometimes counted as monosyllabic: poiriâ. Guiraut Riquier uses -íatz for -iátz. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -iám becomes -ián: cf. §65, M, i; also § 167, 2.

## PRESENT.

154. The personal endings will be discussed separately in §§ $164-169$.
155. The Provençal present indicative and subjunctive come, in the main, directly from the corresponding parts of the Latin verb:-

| amo $>\mathrm{am}$ | amãmu' $>$ amám | faciam $>$ fassa | faciàmu' $>$ fassám |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| amas $>$ amas | amãtis $>$ amátz | facias $>$ fassas | faciãtis $>$ fassátz |
| amat $>$ ama amant | áman | faciat $>$ fassa | faciant $>$ fássan |

In the $4^{\text {th }}$ conjugation, however, most verbs have adopted the originally inchoative $-\mathrm{sc}-(\S 138)$ and incorporated it into the inflection of the present, except in the rst and 2 d pers. pl. of the indicative : -

| forisco | $>$ florísc | florèmu' | $>$ florem $^{1}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| florisscis | $>$ florís florísses | florētis | $>$ floretz ${ }^{1}$ |
| floriscit | $>$ floris | floriscunt | $>$ floríscon |
| floriscam | $>$ florísca | floriscāmu | $>$ floriscám |
| floriscas | $>$ floríscas | floriscātis | $>$ floriscátz |
| floriscat | $>$ florísca | floriscant | $>$ floríscan |

We occasionally find such forms as florissem, florissetz, and florám, florátz.
r. The s coming from $\mathbf{s c}^{\prime}$ was of course originally palatal; it is sometimes written $s h$. The sc of the ist pers. sg., the 3 d pers. pl., and the whole pres. subjunctive was replaced, in some dialects, by or sh: floris florish, florisson florishon, florissa florisha.
156. Of the Latin imperative forms, only the present active, $2 d$ pers. sg. and pl., remained in use. The Provençal verb kept the sg., but substituted for the pl. the 2 d pers. pl. of the present indicative:-

| ama | $>\mathrm{ama}$ | těne | $>$ ten | crēde |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| amāte amãtis | $>$ amátz | tenèt | $>$ ten | crēdi |  |  | rez |


| partī | $>$ part |
| :--- | :--- |
| partīte partītis $>$ partẹtz ${ }^{2}$ |  |$\quad$| finsce $>$ finís |
| :--- |

In negative commands the present subjunctive is generally used instead of the plural imperative, and sometimes the infinitive is employed instead of sg. or pl. The verbs auzir, aver, dire, esser, saber, vezer, voler regularly took their imperative forms from the present subjunctive: áuias, digátz, veiátz, etc.

[^54]I Fait < facite (beside faitz) seems to come directly from the Latin form.
2. Before vos the pl. drops final $-t z$ (or $-t$ ?): departe vos, vene vos. Ve vos becomes veus; a fusion of ve vos and ec<eccum results in vecvos.

## Double Stems.

157. Differences in accentuation and in the environment of vowels or consonants regularly developed different stems in different parts of some verbs. For instance, ádjūtáre $>$ aidar (§45), while adjútat $>$ aiüda.
158. Sometimes, as above, an intertonic vowel disappeared: mándūcáre > maniar, mandūco >* mandüc manüc; *parabolāre *párauláre>parlar, * parabŏlat *paraulat>paraula. In such cases the shortened stem usually prevailed: mania, parla. But in adjutare the longer one was preferred: aiudar.
159. (1) A vowel which breaks in one part of a verb may be unstressed, and therefore remain unbroken, in another part: probāre $>$ proar, prŏbat $>$ prueva, ${ }^{8}{ }^{*}$ sequīre $>$ sęguir, ${ }^{*}$ sĕquit $>$ siec. ${ }^{4}$ In such cases the phonetic development is generally undisturbed.
(2) A vowel which breaks in one part of a verb may, with different environment, remain unbroken even in another part in which it is stressed: *volēre $>$ volẹ, * vŏleo $>$ vuelh, * vollet $>$ vol. If the breaking occurs in the ist pers. sg., the phonetic development is regularly undisturbed; if it occurs in the 2 d and 3 d pers. sg., it is generally carried into the other forms in which the vowel is stressed: colliggit $>$ cuẹlh, hence cuelh $=$ colligo; ëxit > iẹis, hence iẹs, iẹscon, iẹsca.
160. A consonant may be followed by er $\frac{i}{n}$, and so pala-
talized, in one part of the verb, and not in another: * cadeo $>$ chai, * cadèmu' $>$ chazẹm; dèbeo $>$ dẹch dẹi (§73, ßy), dèbet $>$ dẹu; faciat $>$ fassa, facēre $>$ faire; fügio $>$ füi, fugĕre $>$ fugir; jaceam > iassa, jacère > iazẹr ${ }^{1}$; placeāmu'> plassám, placèmu' $>$ plazem; sapiam $>$ sapcha, sapit $>$ sap; tëneo $>$ tenh, tĕnet $>$ ten; valeo $>$ valh, vales $>$ vals; vĕniat $>$ venha, venïre $>$ venir; vǐdeam $>$ vẹia, vidētis $>$ vezẹtz; * vŏleo $>$ vuẹlh, * vŏlet $>$ vọl. Verbs in -eo generally keep this distinction; but we find mọva, somóna, tẹma $=$ mŏveam, submŏneam, tĭmeam. Most verbs in $-i o$, on the other hand, dropped the i in Vulgar Latin: partio *parto > part, partiunt *partunt $>$ parton, partiam * partam > parta; sen, senton, senta; sięrf, sięrvon, sierva; etc. A few verbs show forms both with and without the e or i: audio $>$ auch (audiam $>$ auia), ${ }^{*}$ audo $>$ au; crēdo $>$ cre, * crēdeo $>\mathrm{crẹi}^{2}$; vǐdeo $>\mathrm{vẹi}^{2}$, ${ }^{*}$ vǐdo $>$ vẹ.
161. Verbs in -ng- naturally developed a palatal consonant before e or $\mathrm{i}\left(\S 73, \mathrm{Ng}^{\prime}\right)$, but not before other vowels: cingěre $>$ cẹnher, cinngo $>$ cẹnc, cĭngit $>$ cẹnh, cinngam $>$ cẹnga; so fẹnher, onher, plánher, pọnher, etc. The palatal was carried by analogy into the parts that were originally without it: hence the double forms cenc cẹhh, cẹngon cẹnhon, cenga cenha, etc. These double forms led tener, venir to adopt tenc, venc, tenga, venga, beside the regular tenh, venh, tenha, venha. Such forms as these, supported by derc < de-érĭgo, dic $<$ dīco, prec $<$ prěco, sẹc $<*$ sequo, trac $<*$ trago, etc., afforded a starting-point for an ending $-c$, adopted by some other verbs in the rst pers. sg. of the present indicative: pĕrdo < perrt perc, $\operatorname{pr}(e h)$ ěndo $>$ pren prenc, remaneo $>$ remanh remanc, etc.
[^55]
## Peculiar Forms.

162. The following verbs have individual peculiarities that call for special mention:-
(1) Anar (<annāre), 'to go', takes most of its present from vadĕre: indicative, vau vauc (analogy of estau estauc), vas, va vai (analogy of fai), anám, anátz, van vaun (analogy of estan estaun); subjunctive, an or vaza (<vadam) vaia (analogy of vai and of traia), vaga (analogy of traga), etc.; imperative, vai (analogy of fai), andatz.
(2) Aucire (<occīdĕre: § 43) has in the pres. indicative 3 d sg. auci (<occiddit) and aucis (analogy of aucizém, aucizétz). Cf. auzir, caire, rire, traire, vezér. These forms were doubtless helped by the analogy of ditz (<dīcit), dü̈tz, fatz, iatz, letz (<lücet), platz, tatz.
(3) Auzir (<audīre) has in the pres. indicative 3d sg. au (<audit) and aus (analogy of auzém, auzétz). Cf. aucire, caire, rire, traire, vezér. See also § 160 .
(4) Aver (<habēre) has in the pres. indicative: ai (<habeo: § 73, $\beta \mathrm{y})$, as, a, avém, avétz (see §§ 167, 168), an aun; see § 137, (1). There is no trace of *ho. Instead of $a i$, the dialects of Aude, Tarn, Tarn et Garonne, and Haute-Garonne have ei (cf. Gram., II, p. 304), which probably developed first in the future (§ 152, 1) through the analogy of the preterit ending $-e i$ which took the place of $-a i$ : amãvi ${ }^{*}$ amai $>$ *amai amei (§ 175), then amarai $>$ amare $i$, then $a i>e i$. The pres. subjunctive is aia ( $<h a$ beam : § 73, $\beta \mathrm{y}$ ). For the imperative, see § 156.
(5) Caire cazér (<caděre *cadère) has in the pres. indicative 3d sg. ca (<cadit) cai (analogy of brai<*bragit, fai, trai<*tragit, vai) cas (analogy of cazém, cazétz: cf. aucire, auzir, rire, traire, vezér).
(6) Conóisser (<cognōscĕre) has in the pres. indicative ist sg. conosc (<cognōsco) and conóis (analogy of 2 d and 3 d sg., conóisses, conóis).
(7) Creire (<crēdëre): pres. subjunctive creza (<crēdam) and crega (analogy of diga, prega, sega, traga). See also § 160.
(8) Créisser (<crēscęre) : pres. subjunctive cresca (<crēscam) and crega (analogy of diga, prega, sega, traga, and of the imperfect subjunctive cregués).
(9) Dar (<dare): dau (<*dao), daun (<* daunt); see § 137, ( 1 ).
(Io) Destruire ( $<^{*}$ destrī̆ğ̨re $=$ destruěre ) : analogy of ağ̌re, ť̌gěre, etc. Cf. traire. *Destrūgit $>$ destriui.
(II) Dever (<debëre) has in the pres. indicative ist sg., beside dech dei (§ 160 ), dec (analogy of dic, prec, sec, trac, and perhaps of the preterit dec).
 $d i$ (analogy of fai, trai, and of imperative di<dic); dizon (analogy of ditz, dizém, dizétz); diga dia (both <dicam: § 65, G). For the imperative, see § 156.
(13) Düire $(<\dot{d u} \bar{c} c e ̆ r e):$ dütz $(<d \bar{u} c i t)$ düi (analogy of destriui, traiz).
(14) Eissir (<exire): iesc, iescon, iesca, analogy of conosc, florisc, etc.; for vowel, see § $159,(2)$.
(15) Ésser estre (<*ĕssĕre $=$ ěsse). Pres. indicative: sŭm $>$ sọn sọ (§ 82, M), then, by the analogy of $a i$ and fuii, sọi suii ; ĕs became est iest, perhaps through ěs tu> es-t-u $>$ est-tü, supported by the analogy of the preterit ending of the 2 d sg . (vọs vendettz, tü vendest or vendiest, so, to match vọs ẹtz, a form tü est or iest); ěst became ẹ, probably through such combinations as quẹ's (understood as qu'es); simu', which existed in Latin beside sümus (Rom., XXI, 347), gave sẹm, while from ěstis there was constructed an *ĕsmus $>$ ęsmes (rare), and from etz a form ẹm (very common) ; ĕstis > ęstz ętz (§ 78, 2) ; sünt $>$ sọn sọ (§ $83, \mathrm{Nt}$ ). Pres. subjunctive: sim, siss, etc., were replaced in V. L. by *săam, *sias, etc. (on the analogy of fiam, faciam, etc.), which gave sía sías sía siám siátz, sían síon; we find also sẹia, etc., formed apparently on deia, veia. Imperative borrowed from subjunctive.
(16) Estar ( $<$ stare). Pres. indicative: estáu ( $<$ *stao) estáuc (§ 16 r ); estás (<stas); está (<stat) estái (analogy of fai, trai); estám (<stamu'); estátz (<statis) estáitz (after faitz); están $(<\operatorname{stant})$ estáun ( $<*$ staunt); see § 137, (1). Pres. subjunctive: estía, etc., estéia, etc., patterned on sia, seia; also estéi, perhaps a cross between esteia and *esté < stem. Imperative: está, estáitz.
(17) Faire far (< facëre * fare): § $\mathbf{1} 37$, ( $\mathbf{1}$ ). Pres. indicative: fatz $(<$ facio) fau (analogy of dau, estau) fac fauc (§161); fas ( $<$ * fas) ; fatz $(<$ facit) fa (<*fat) fai (influence of faire, faim, faitz, and of trai); faim (<facimu': § 167, 1) fam (<*famu') fazém (see fazétz); faitz (<facǐtis) fatz (<* fatis) fazétz (analogy of regular verbs, crezétz, etc.) ; fan ( $<$ *fant) faun (analogy of daun, estaun). Pres. subjunctive: faça fassa, etc. $(<$ faciam, etc.). Imperative: fai $(<f a c)$; fatz faitz (borrowed from indicative) fait (<facite).
(18) Iazér $(<$ jacēre), also iassér (influence of ias $<$ iatz $<j a c e t$, and of
iassa?) : iatz (<jacet) iai (analogy of fai, trai); iassa (<,jaceam) iaia (anal ogy of traia, vaia).
(19) Movér móure (<movère * mövĕre) : mova ( $<$ * mŏvam $=$ möveam ) moga (analogy of traga).
(20) Partir (<partīre) : part (<*parto = partio) parc (§ 161); so parta parga.
(21) Perdre (<pĕrdëre): pert perc, perda perga; see § 161.
(22) Plazér plaire (<placēre * placĕre) : platz (<placet) plai (analogy of fai, trai) ; plassa ( $<$ placeam) plaia (analogy of traia, vaia).
(23) Podér (<*potēre $=$ pösse ) : see § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: posc $(<$ pơssum influenced by cognōsco) puosc puesc (analogy of puoc puec $<$ pötui), puecs $(?<$ *pots $<$ *portsum + puesc $)$, pois $(<*$ pösseo); potz $(<$ potes $)$; pot $(<*$ pŏtet $=$ pötest $) ;$ podém $(<$ *potèmu'); podétz $(<$ *potētis); póden (<*potent) pódon, pon (analogy of potz, pot, and son < sünt). Pres. subjunctive: posca puosca puesca (like posc puosc puesc), etc.; poissa (<*pösseam), etc.
(24) Prendre (prĕndĕre $=$ prehĕndĕre) penre (see § 71, end): pren (<prĕndo) prenh (analogy of tenh, venh) prenc (§ 161); so prenda prenha prenga.
(25) Rire (<* rīdĕre) : ri (<rīdet) ritz (analogy of rizém, rizétz: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, traire, vezér); ria (<rīdeam?).
(26) Sabér (<* sapēre) : see § 137, I. Pres. indicative: sai sei (analogy of ai ei from avér); saps; sap; sabém (<* sapèmu') ; sabétz ( $<$ * sapètis) ; sáben $(<*$ sapent ) sábon. Pres. subjunctive: sapcha (<sapiam). Imperative from subjunctive.
(27) Tazér taire (<tacēre * tacĕre) : tatz (<tacet) tai (analogy of taire and of fai, trai).
(28) Tenėr (<tenēre) : tenh (<těneo) tenc (§ 161); so tenha tenga.
(29) Traire (<*tragĕre, perhaps also * tracëre, $=$ trahëre $): \operatorname{trac}(<*$ trago or ${ }^{*}$ traco $)$ trai $(\S 63,6)^{1}$; trai (<*tragit) tra (analogy of da, esta, fa, va) tratz (<*tracit?: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, rire, vezér) ; trázon (analogy of tratz) ; traga traia (both $<$ *tragam).
(30) Vezér (<vidēre) : vei (<video) vec (§ 161) ; ve (<videt) ves (analogy of vezém, vezétz: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, rire, traire). Imperative from subjunctive.

[^56](31) Volér (<* volère = vĕlle): see § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: vuelh (<* volleo) ; vols (<* volles) ; vol (<* vollet) ; volém (<* volèmu') ${ }^{1}$; volétz ( $<$ *volètis) ; vólon ( $<$ *volent). Pres. subjunctive: vuelha ( $<$ *vgleam ), vuelhas, vuelha, vulhám, vulhátz, vuelhan. Imperative from subjunctive.
163. In verse the present subjunctive ending -ia sometimes counts as one syllable: siatz. Cf. § 153, i.

## Personal Endings ${ }^{2}$.

164. ( 1 ) In the first person singular final -0 and -em regularly disappeared: amo>am, amem $>\mathrm{am}$. When, however, the $-o$ or $-e m$ was preceded by a consonant group requiring a supporting vowel ( $\$ 5^{2}$ ), the ending was regularly retained as -e: dübŭto $>$ dopte, sŭffĕro $>$ suffre, trëmŭlem $>$ tremble.

Through the analogy of ai, crẹi, dẹi, sọi, vẹi, and the rst pers. sg. of the preterit, this -e was in the indicative generally changed at an early date to -i : * cŏpĕro > cobre cobri, *opĕro $>$ obre obri; so impleo *implo>ompli. This -i (occasionally -e) was then taken as a distinctive ending of the ist pers. sg., and was added to many verbs that needed no supporting vowel: auzir, au auze; azorar, azor azori; cantar, can canti; cọrre, cọr cọrri; mẹtre, mẹt mẹti; prezar, prẹtz prẹzi; remirar, remir remire remiri; respondre, respon respondi; sentir, sen senti; vẹndre, vẹn vẹndi.

In the subjunctive, when a final vowel was required, -e was usually kept; it was also extended to some verbs that did not need it: acabe, done, mire, plore. Very rarely an unnecessary -i was added instead of -e: laissar, lais laissi.
(2) The ending -am regularly gave -a : audiam $>$ auia.

[^57]165. In the second person singular final -as regularly remained, and $\overline{-} s$ and $\bar{\nu} s$ became $-s$ (or, when a supporting vowel was required, -es): amas $>$ amas; valēs $>$ vals, sapĭs $>$ saps, partīs $>$ partz; dübütēs $>$ doptes. Cf. § 82, S. Sometimes, especially in late texts, -s is expanded into -es: canz cantes, partz partes, saps sabes, vals vales; so floris florisses, etc.

Final $-a$ remained, and $-\bar{e}$ and $-\bar{\imath}$ fell: ama>ama, tëne $>$ ten, crēde $>$ cre, partī> part.
166. In the third person singular final -at became $-\mathrm{a},-\bar{e} t$ and -it fell (but remained as -e when a supporting vowel was needed): amat $>$ ama, amet $>$ am, tĕnet $>$ ten te, vĕnit $>$ ven ve; trëmŭlet > tremble. Cf. § 82, T.
167. In the first person plural the final $-s$ disappeared early, $s$ being perhaps regarded as a distinctively second person ending ${ }^{1}$. The rare form esmes =sümus is the only one that retains the $s$ : cf. § 162 , ( 15 ).

Then - $\bar{a} m u$ ', - $\bar{e} m u$ ' gave regularly -am, -ẹm: cantāmus $>$ cantám, habēmus > avẹm. Likewise -imu', through the analogy of $-\bar{a} m u$ ', $-\bar{e} m u$ ', came to take the accent on its penult, and then regularly developed into -em: crēdïmus * credímu'> crezem. This -em of the second and third conjugations passed into the fourth, and entirely displaced the -im that would have been the regular representative of -imu': partimus $>$ * partím partem.

1. In faim < facimu' the old accentuation apparently survives: cf. § 52, (4), 1.
2. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -m apparently becomes $-n$ : devén, havén, volén; so aurián, trobarén, segrián (cf. § $152, \mathrm{I} ; \S 153, \mathrm{I}$ ). Cf. § $65, \mathrm{M}, \mathrm{I}$.

[^58]168. In the second person plural -ātis regularly gave -atz: amātis > amatz, audiātis>auiatz. The regular form from -ētis is -etz, which we find kept in the future (veiretz) and in the present subjunctive (cantetz); in the present indicative it was replaced by -etz, probably through the analogy of etz <ĕstis: habētis>avẹtz avẹtz, * potētis> podẹtz podẹtz, so sezetz, valetz, etc.; the rare avetz and podetz are the only forms that preserve e. The ending -ittis, taking the accent on its penult (cf. § 167 ), became *-etz, then -etz: crēditis $>$ crezetz. This -etz also displaced the -itz that would have been regular in the fourth conjugation: partitis $>$ partetz.

The final -tz was reduced, in some of the principal dialects, to -s (§ 64) : cantás, sezes, partes. In other dialects it was replaced very early by -t (§64): auiát, avęt, passát, podet ; so partiret, etc.
I. In faitz < facitis the old accentuation apparently survives.
169. In the third person plural -ant, -ent, -unt gave respectively -an -ant, -en, -on -o (§83, Nt) : amant >áman ámant, audiant $>$ áuian áuiant; valent $>$ válen, ament $>$ ámen; vèndunt $>$ vẹndon vẹndo. In Languedoc -an was replaced by -on or -0 in the isth century; in other regions, later: ámon, chanto 1 s, coménso 1. The Boeci has -en for -an: amen, monten. In Gascony and some of the Limousin territory -en partially displaced -on (floríssen, párten, vẹnden), elsewhere -on or -o displaced -en (válon).

## IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

170. In the first conjugation -abam regularly gave -ava. In the second, through the analogy of $a \beta$ éa $<$ habēbam (§ 153 ), -ébam came to be replaced, in southern Gaul, by -éa, which regularly changed to $-i a\left(\S_{26}\right)$. In the third, $-i \bar{e} b a m$ regu-
larly became -ébam ( $\S 40,1$ ); and this and original -ēbam were replaced by the $-e ́ a>-i a$ of the second conjugation. In the fourth, $-\bar{i}$ bam, which had in the accented syllable the characteristic vowel of the conjugation, crowded out $-i \bar{e} b a m ;-\bar{i} b a m$ then lost its $\beta$ through the analogy of the second and third conjugations. We have, then, in Provençal, only two sets of endings: -áva, etc., in the first conjugation; -ia, etc., in the second, third, and fourth.

| amáva | vezía | fazía | partía |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| amávas | vezías | fazías | partías |
| amáva | vezía | fazía | partía |
| amavám | veziám | faziám | partiám |
| amavátz | veziátz | faziátz | partiátz |
| amávan | vezían | fazían | partían |

1. In poetry $i a$ is sometimes counted as one syllable: avian, devian.
2. For some subsequent developments of western dialects, see MeyerLiibke, Gram., II, p. 326.
3. For the personal endings, see $\S \S 164-169$.
4. Esser has: ęra, ęras, ęra, erám, erátz erás, ęran ęron ęro.

## PRETERIT, OLD CONDITIONAL, AND IMPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE.

171. These parts are all formed from the same stem, that of the Latin perfect: cf. § 141, (2). Ex.: canter, cantera, cantes; vendei, vendera, vendes; partí, partíra, partís; vi, vira, vis; dẹc, degra, deguẹ.

## Preterit.

172. Preterits which stress the ending throughout are called weak; those which do not stress the ending throughout are called strong: partí, partist, partí, partím, partítz, partíron is weak; saup, saubíst, saup, saubém, saubétz, sáubron is strong. Verbs of the first and fourth conjugations regularly
have weak preterits (amei, finí). Verbs of the second and third, with very few exceptions, originally had strong preterits (placu $\bar{\imath}>$ plac, $f \bar{e} c \bar{\imath}>f i s)$ : many of them, however, developed weak preterits either in Vulgar Latin or in Provençal (irasquẹi, nasquęi, tessẹi tesquẹi, visqueei); some assumed a weak form in -1 in the ist pers. sg. (dis dissí, pris prenguí, remas remanguí, trais traguí: cf. §§ 173, 177 ); quẹre, on the other hand, substituted a strong preterit (quis, etc.) for a weak one.
173. (1) Final $-\bar{z}$, in the first pers. sg., doubtless remained through the earlier stages of Provençal (habuī>águi, dīxī> díssi): cf. § ${ }_{51}$, (2). Before it fell, it changed an accented e in the preceding syllable to i (vēn ${ }^{*}$ vēnū̄ $>^{*}$ vẹngui vinc) : cf. § 27 ; occasionally, however, the e was kept, through the analogy of the other persons (pris pres). Sometimes, instead of falling, the $-i$ took the accent (following the analogy of the fourth conjugation) and remained: águi $>$ ac or aguí, díssi $>$ dis or dissí (cf. § 177).

When the -i was immediately preceded by an accented vowel, it regularly formed a diphthong with that vowel, and did not fall ( $f u \bar{\imath}>$ füi) : cf. § ${ }^{1}$, (3); but -íi was simplified to -i (partivi partī > partí).

Before enclitic 1 , -ei -iei were often reduced to $-\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{ie}$ : cantie 1 .
(2) In the 2 d pers. sg., - sti became - st, a preceding e being changed to $\mathrm{i}\left(\begin{array}{l}\text { 27 }\end{array}\right)$ : partīstī>partíst, debuĭstī> deguíst; sometimes, through the analogy of the $2 d$ pers. pl., e remains (venguẹt: cf. § 27,2 ). Occasionally the final $-t$ disappears: aniẹt anies, fezíst fezís.
(3) The $-t$ of the 3 d pers. sg. was lost in strong preterits: placuit $>$ plac, vidit $>$ vi. In weak preterits, it was retained
by most dialects after é, and by many after 1 : donẹt done, vendẹt vendẹ; partí partít. Cf. § 82, T.
(4) In the ist pers. pl., $-m u s-m u$ ' (see § i67 ) was reduced to -m : vidimu' $>$ vim.
(5) The -stis of the 2 d pers. pl. regularly became $-t z$ $(\S 78,2)$, later in many dialects - s $(\S 64)$ : debuistis $>$ deguẹtz degues.
(6) The -runt of the 3 d pers. pl. regularly gave -ron or -ro (§83, Nt) : partīrunt $>$ partíron partíro, vidērunt $>$ viron viro. In some dialects -en is substituted for -on: füĕrunt $>$ foron foren (cf. § 169 ).

The $e$ before -runt, which in classic Latin was usually long, was always short in Vulgar Latin when it was preserved at all: amavěrunt > amārunt, fēcĕrunt.

## Weak Preterits.

174. (1) In the first and fourth conjugations we find in Latin the following endings:-
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-\overline{d}v\overline{\imath}-\overline{a}\overline{\imath}}-\overline{a}vimmus -ivi\overline{i}-\overline{i} -ivimus
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The popular speech preferred in every case the shortened form, and generally reduced -āvimus, -īvimus to -āmus, -imus (in southern Gaul - $\bar{a} m u$ ', $-\bar{i} m u^{\prime}: ~ § ~ 167$ ), on the analogy of the 2 d pers. sg. and pl .
(2) In the second conjugation a few verbs (delēre, fière, nēre, olēre, -plēre, viēre) had similar endings (delēvī, etc.), which were doubtless contracted in like fashion in so far as these words were in common use. Most verbs of this conjugation, however, had strong preterits (tacēre, tacū̄; vidēre, vīdī; etc.).
(3) The third conjugation had in classic Latin no weak endings corresponding to those of the first, second, and fourth; but the vulgar speech developed a set in the following manner. Compounds of dare formed their perfect in $-d \check{u} d \bar{\imath}$ (perd$\left.{ }^{\imath} d \bar{u}\right)$; this $-d \check{\imath} d \bar{\imath}$, in accordance with the principle set forth in § 16,3 , came to be pronounced -dẹdị (condédi); and -dedi, probably through dissimilation ${ }^{1}$, was shortened to -dẹi (* credéi). With this form as a starting-point, a weak preterit was created on the analogy of those of the other conjugations, the endings being something like -ei, esti, -et, -emus -emu', -estis, -erunt. This inflection was probably extended to some verbs outside the -dĕre class (*battéi, etc. ?).
175. (1) In Provençal the weak inflection disappeared from the second conjugation, delēre and -plère passing into the fourth, and the other weak verbs going out of use.
(2) Verbs of the fourth conjugation (except venir) all took the weak endings $-i, l^{\prime}$ ís, $-i,-i ́ m,-i ́ t z,-i ́ r o n: ~ p a r t i ́, ~ p a r t i ́ s t, ~$ partí, partím, partítz, partíron. Irregular verbs either disappeared or became regular (sens $\bar{i}=$ sentí), with the exception of venīe $>$ venir (vinc). ${ }^{2}$
(3) The new weak endings of the third conjugation developed into -ęi, -est, -ẹt, -ém, -ętz, -eron: vendẹi, vendẹst, vendet, vendém, vendettz, venderon. In the ist pers. sg. the e often broke (vendiei), and the diphthong was sometimes carried into the 2 d pers. sg. (vendiest). These endings were considerably extended in Provençal (cazẹt, etc.), and were occasionally attached to a strong preterit stem (nasquet, tesquęt, venquẹt, visquẹt). Most verbs, however, kept their

[^59]strong preterit (mis, conoc). The -ivi perfect disappeared from the third conjugation: quasivit $>$ * quasit $>$ ques.
(4) The first conjugation discarded its own weak endings, and substituted those of the third: canteei cantieei, cantest cantięst, cantẹt, cantém, cantẹtz, cantẹron. This strange phenomenon seems to have originated as follows: dare, dĕdī> dar, deei; from dar the ending -ei was readily extended to estar (estei); and from these two very common verbs it spread to the whole first conjugation.

Irregular verbs (except dare, stare) either disappeared or became regular.

1. According to Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 304, Latin -ai became by phonetic process -ęi in Vulgar Latin, and -ęi or -iẹi in Provençal. There seems to be no evidence to support this theory. Cf. § $23,2$.
2. In the dialects of Bearn and Catalonia the original $a$ remains in some parts of the preterit.
3. A final -c , which developed in the strong $-u i$ preterits (§ 184 ), often became attached to the 3 d pers. sg. of weak preterits of the fourth conjugation: floríc, fugic, iauzíc, partíc. ${ }^{1}$ It was sometimes extended to other weak preterits: chanteec, entendeec, nasquẹ, ${ }^{2}$ pareec. ${ }^{3}$ We find also a 3 d pers. pl. cazegron, etc., and even a ist pers. sg. ameguí, etc. In some western dialects the final -c was adopted by the whole first conjugation: donẹc, portec, etc.
4. Some strong preterits occasionally assumed weak endings:-
(r) In the rst pers. sg. several verbs in -s sometimes either added an -1 or shifted the stress to an originally unaccented

[^60]final-i (cf. §§ 172, 173): dis dissí, pris presí, quis quesí, respos respozí. A few verbs in -c did the same: aic aiguí, bẹc beguí, conọc conoguí, saup saubí, vinc venguí, vọlc volguí. An ending -guí being thus established, this syllable was sometimes added to preterits not of the -c class: costrenguí, destrenguí, prenguí, remanguí, restrenguí, traguí.
(2) In the $3^{d}$ pers. sg. weak endings are rare: ac aguet, venc venguẹt.
(3) In the 3 d pers. pl. the weak ending is not uncommon in -s preterits: diron disseron, düistrent düisseron, mẹsdren mezeron, preson preseron, remastrent remazeron, traissęron. We probably have to deal here, as in (1), with a shift of accent—dixeĕrunt > * dísseron > disseron, etc.: see § 49, (2). The same thing may be true of such a form as aguetron, beside ágron, from *áßwerunt $=$ habuërunt; such a form as visqueron, on the other hand, is doubtless imitative.

## Strong Preterits.

178. (1) The reduplicative perfects were discarded in Vulgar Latin, with the exception of $d$ ědi (and its compounds) and stěti, whose reduplicative character was no longer apparent. Cecǐdī became ${ }^{*}$ cadui or ${ }^{*}$ cadéí; the rest either disappeared or passed into the $-s \bar{i}$ class: cucurrr $\bar{i}>{ }^{*}$ cŭrsī, momŏrd $\bar{i}$ $>$ * mŏrsī, pepĕndī > *pē $(n) s \bar{i}$, pupŭgī $>$ *punsì, tetĕnd $\bar{i}>$ * tè $(n) s \bar{i}, \operatorname{tete}^{2} g \bar{i}>{ }^{*} \operatorname{taxi}{ }^{*} \tan x \bar{i}$.
(2) The $-i$ perfects were greatly reduced in number in Vulgar Latin. Some disappeared ( $\bar{g} g \bar{i}$ ), some became weak ( $f \bar{u} g \bar{\imath}>{ }^{*} f u g \bar{\imath} \gg$ fügí) ; others passed into the $-s \bar{i}$ or the $-u \bar{\imath}$ class: prehĕndī>*prē $(n)$ sī>pris; bı̆bit $>{ }^{*}$ bĭbuit $>\mathrm{becc}$, vēnit $>$ * vènuit $>$ venc. In Provençal only three $-\bar{\imath}$ verbs remained: $f e ̄ c i \gg$ fis, $f u \bar{\imath}>$ füi, vīd $\bar{\imath}>$ vi.
(3) Of the $-s \bar{i}$ class (including $-s s \bar{i}$ and $-x \bar{i}$ ) over twenty verbs were preserved in Vulgar Latin ( $d \bar{i} x i \bar{i}$, excūssī, mìsī, traxī, etc.), and about the same number passed into this class from others $\left(a b s c o(n) s i \bar{i}\right.$, fraxī $^{*}$ sürsī, etc.): cf. (1) and (2) above. In Provençal nearly half the verbs of the second and third conjugations have $-s \bar{i}$ preterits: rema $(n) s \bar{i}>$ remas, ${ }^{*}$ re$s p \bar{o}(n) s \bar{i}>$ respos ${ }^{1}$.
(4) The $-u \bar{\imath}$ class held its own very well in Vulgar Latin (placuī, etc.) and received some additions (natus sum $>$ * nacuī, sustūlī>* tŏluī, vēnī>* vēnuī, vīcī>* vĭncuī, vīxī> * vīscuī, etc.) ${ }^{2}$. To this class belonged, in Vulgar Latin (and, according to Meyer-Lübke ${ }^{8}$, in classic Latin also), all perfects in $-v i \bar{i}$, this ending being pronounced -wŭī, later -wwị or $-\beta$ wị: cognōvī > * conōvū̄> conọc, crēvit > * crēvuit >crẹc, mō$v i ̄>*$ mŏvuī> mọc. Cf. § 148 . In Provençal not far from half the verbs of the second and third conjugations have $-u \bar{i}$ preterits. For a combination af a $-\mathrm{c}<-u \bar{i}$ stem with a weak ending, see § 175 , (3). For the extension of $-\mathrm{c}<-u \bar{z}$ to other conjugations, see § 176 .
179. In the ist pers. pl. the accent was shifted to the ending, to make this form correspond to the 2 d pers. sg. and pl.: fécĭmus > ${ }^{*}$ fécímu' $>$ fezem (cf. fecīstī $>$ fezist, fecīstis $>$ fezẹtz), ${ }^{*} \operatorname{prē}(n)$ simus $>{ }^{*}$ presímu' $>$ prezẹm, debŭĭmus $>$ de$\beta w i ̆ m u '>$ deguẹm. Exceptions are füŭmus $>$ fọm, vīdĭmus $>$

[^61]vim; in these verbs the 2 d pers. forms also are monosyllabic (füst, fọtz; vist, vitz).
180. We find in some verbs an irregular 3 d pers. pl. without $-\mathrm{r}-$, made by adding -on or -en to the 3 d pers. sg., the final consonant of which is voiced in all verbs in which it is voiced in the other persons of the plural: (aucire) aucis, aucíson; (plánher) plais, pláisson; (prenre) pres, prẹson; (remanre) remas, remáson; (venir) vẹnc, vẹnguen; (volẹr) volc, volgon.

1. Prenre has preiron (beside preson preseron), probably through the analogy of feiron < fécěrunt. Mairon, from maner, is perhaps to be explained in the same way.
2. (1) Through the change of $-\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{to}-\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{by}$ the influence of a final -i , as described in § 173 , ( I ), a distinction was established between the first and the third person singular of some preterits: crēvī> cric, crēvit $>$ crecc ; fēc̄ $>$ fis, fēcit $>$ fẹs; * $\operatorname{pre}(n) s \bar{\imath}>$ pris, ${ }^{*} p r e \bar{e}(n)$ sit $>$ pres; tènu $\bar{\imath}{ }^{*}$ tēnu $\bar{\imath}^{1}>$ tinc, tënuit * tēnuit $>$ tẹnc; vènī ${ }^{*}$ vènuī ${ }^{1}>$ vinc, vènit * vēnuit $>$ vẹnc. Mẹtre, also, has mis, mẹ, which may come from
 comes from $m i \bar{s} \bar{\imath}$ and mẹs is analogical. Through the analogy of such forms, querre has quis, ques. In the preterit of poder, both pötui and pŏtuit would regularly have given poc puoc puec ( $\S 37$ ), but poc was kept for the 3 d person, and puoc puec was used for the ist. The preterit of voler differentiates the two persons similarly - vuelc, volc; here the diphthong (perhaps under the influence of puec) is borrowed from the present, where we have * vŏleo> vuẹlh, * vŏlet > vọl (§ 37). Avẹr, likewise, borrows a distinction from the present: aic, ac reproduce the vowels of ai, a; aic + aguí $>$ aiguí.

[^62](2) For -1 as a characteristic of the first person, see § 177 , ( 1 ).
(3) For -c as a distinctive mark of the third person, see § 176.
182. The three $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ perfects developed in Provençal as follows: -
(1) Facĕre $>$ faire ( ${ }^{*}$ fare $>$ far) has:

| $>$ fis, fezí | fēcìmus ${ }^{\text {f }}$ écìmu' $>$ fezẹm |
| :---: | :---: |
| feečistī $>$ fezíst fezís | fêčustis $\quad>$ fezetz fezẹs |
| fëcit > fẹtz fees | féç'runt $>$ fẹiron |

1. We do not find, in the ist pers. sg., as we should expect ( $\$ 65, C^{\prime}$ ), $f i t z$ beside $f i s$; doubtless the form came early under the influence of mis, pris, quis, etc. For $f e z i$, see $\S 177$, ( $\mathbf{1}$ ). There is also a form $f$, due, perhaps, to the analogy of $v i<v \bar{i} \bar{d} \bar{z}$; corresponding to $f i$ are 3 d pers. sg. $f e$, and pl. fem, fes, feron. A rare figui is evidently made on the model of aigui, etc. In the 3d pers. sg. we find also fei, which seems to be patterned after feiron or after the present fai.
(2) Esse ( $>^{*}$ ĕssĕre $>$ esser estre) had originally a long $u$ in the perfect. In literary Latin the $u$ was shortened, but the popular speech seems to have kept $\bar{u}$ beside $\bar{u}$. The Provençal ist and 2 d pers. sg. apparently come from $f u \bar{u},{ }^{*} f u \bar{s} t \bar{i}=f u i ̆ s t i ̄$ (although Pr. füi might be taken from füū), while the other forms presuppose $\check{u}$ :

| fü | $>$ fuii | füımus * fümu' | $>$ fọm |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $>$ füst füs | fü̆stis *füstis | $>$ fọz fọ |
| fü | $>$ fọ, fọn, fọnc | füĕrunt * fürunt | $>$ fọron fọro, fọren |

1. A rare $f 0$ in the ist pers. sg. seems to be simply borrowed from the 3 d . In the 3 d pers. sg., fon beside $f 0$ is due to the analogy of $-o n-0$ in the 3 d pers. pl., and, in general, of such double forms as bon bo, mon mo, son so, ton to: cf. § 63, (5). Fonc shows the influence of tenc, venc.
(3) Vidère > vezer has:

| vidd $\bar{\square}$ |  | vīdimus * vïd'mu' | >* viờmu* viim vim |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| vīdùsti | $>$ vist vis | vidistis | $>$ vitz vis |
| vidit | $>*$ við vi, vit, vi | vīdĕrunt | * viơrun vir |

1. The ist pers. sg. vic is patterned upon aic <habuī, cric <crēvi, etc. The 2d pers. forms are irregular, as we should expect * vezist, * vezetz: evidently the 2 d pers. followed the analogy of the 1 st and 3 d . In the 3 d pers. sg., vit and vic follow the model of partit, partic, etc. : see § 173, (3), and § 176 .
2. In the -si perfect the 3 d pers. pl. presented difficulties. If the -e- of the penult fell, an $s$ or $z$ and an $r$ were brought together. Most dialects apparently preserved the $-\mathrm{e}-$, and shifted the accent to it (aucizeron, condüisseron, disseron, prezeron, remazeron, traissecron), or else borrowed outright the weak ending (responderon): cf. § 49, (2), and § $177,(3)$. Dialects which lost the $-\mathrm{e}-$ too early to follow this method, generally suppressed the sibilant (aucíron, diron, mẹron from metre, remáron), or omitted the $-\mathrm{r}-$ and formed the 3 d pers. pl. directly from the $3^{d}$ pers. sg. (aucízon, pláisson, preezon, remázon: § 180), or else imitated a preterit of another class (mairon from maner, preiron from prenre, doubtless patterned after feiron < fécerrunt); some borderland dialects kept the sibilant and the r , and developed a dental between them (düystrent < düxĕrunt, mẹsdren < mīsĕrunt + * mĭssěrunt: § 70, $\mathrm{Sr}, \mathrm{Zr})$.

As examples of the $-s \bar{i}$ perfect we may take the preterit of dire $<$ dīcĕre and penre prenre $<\operatorname{pr}(e h)$ ĕndëre: -

| (1) $d \bar{i} x \bar{\imath} \bar{i} \quad>$ dis, dissí |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | dīx̌̌stis > dissẹtz disses |
| dixit $>$ dis | $d \bar{x} x$ èrunt $>$ dissęron, diron diro |
| (2) ${ }^{*} \operatorname{pre}(n) s \bar{i} \quad>$ pris, prees, presí | *prè (n)simus * prēsímu' > presẹm |
| * prè (n) sistī > presíst | *prè (n)sistis > presẹtz preses |
| *prè $n$ ) sit > pres | * prè (n)sĕrunt $>$ presęron, preson, | [prẹiron

(3) Escriure < scrībĕre has, beside escris < scrīpsī, a preterit escrius (cf. p. p. escriut escrit escrich), in which the $u$ is probably due to the influence of the infinitive.
(4) For dissí, presí, quesí, respozí, see § 177 , ( 1 ). For pris pres, etc., see § 173, ( 1 ).
184. In the -ui perfect the development depends somewhat upon the consonant preceding the $u$. The treatment of the various cons. + w groups, which was discussed in § 72, may be illustrated by habuit $>\mathrm{ac}^{1}$, crēvit * crēvuit $>\mathrm{crecc}^{2}$; nŏcuit $>$ nọc $^{3}$; sédit ${ }^{*}$ sĕduit $>$ sẹc, pŏtuit $>$ poc; valuit $>$ valc $^{4}$, těnuit * tēnuit $>$ tẹnc $^{5}$, mĕruit $>$ męrc; sapuit $>$ saup $^{6}$ : the noteworthy features are the change of $u$ to -c (through w, gw, g), the absorption of the preceding consonant unless it be a liquid, a nasal, or a $p$, the preservation of the liquid or nasal, and the metathesis of the $p$.

Avẹr < habēre, podẹr < * pŏtēre pŏsse, volẹ <* vŏtēre vĕlle, saber $<{ }^{*}$ sapēre sapëre will serve as examples (for the accentuation of the 3 d pers. pl., see § 16,2 ): -
(1) habuī >ac, aguí, aic, aiguí habǔ̀mus *aßwîmu' >aguẹm habuǐstī > aguíst habǔstis >aguẹtz aguẹs habuit $>$ ac habuěrunt $>$ ágron ágro, aguẹron

1. For agui (begui, conoguí), see § 177, (1). For aic, aiguí, (cric), see § 181, (1). For agueron (visqueron), see § 177, (3).
(2) potuī $>$ pọc puọc puẹc potuimus * potwímu' $>$ poguẹm potuľsti $>$ poguíst potulstis >poguẹtz poguẹs potuit $>$ pọc, pọt potučrunt $>$ pogron pogro
2. For puoc, see § 181, ( $\mathbf{1}$ ). Pot is apparently due to the combined influence of weak preterits and the parts of poder in which the dental is preserved.
[^63]$\begin{array}{ll}\text { (3) vǒluī }>\text { vollc, vuẹlc, volguí } & \text { voluǐmus *volwímu' }>\text { volguẹm } \\ & \text { voluǐst̄̄ }>\text { volguíst } \\ & \text { volǔ̌stis }>\text { volguẹtz volgues } \\ \text { voluit }>\text { volc } & \end{array}$

1. For vuelc (tinc, vinc), see § 181, (1); for volgui (vengui), § 177, (1).
(4) sapuī $>$ saup, saubí sapǔ̌stī $>$ saubíst sapuit $>$ saup
sapuimus * sapwímu' > saubẹm
sapǔ̌stis >saubẹtz saubẹs
sapuěrunt $>$ sáubron sáubro, sáupron
2. For saubí, see § 177, (1). For sáupron (sáupra, saupés, sauprit), see $\S 65, \mathrm{P}, 3$; cf. § $148,(2)$.

## Old Conditional.

185. The old conditional came from the Latin pluperfect indicative, which had been supplanted in its pluperfect sense by a compound form, and was gradually restricted in its use to the functions of a preterit, a perfect conditional, and a simple conditional: see § 141, (2). In Provençal it had only the conditional meaning; and as the new conditional rendered it superfluous, it fell into disuse (with the exception of ágra and fora) in the $13^{\text {th }}$ and 14 th centuries: see $\S 142$, (2).
186. In the fourth conjugation the old conditional comes from the contracted form of the pluperfect (audiram<audivěram). Weak verbs of the third conjugation constructed a similar form (*venderam). First conjugation verbs started with the contracted pluperfect (amāram<amāvĕram), but in Provençal substituted é for á, as in the preterit: § 175 , (4). The Provençal types of the old conditional of weak verbs are, therefore, represented by: amęra, vendera, auzíra. The inflection is as follows: -

| amęra | amerám | auzíra | auzirám |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| amęras | amerátz | auzíras | auzirátz |
| amęra | amęran | auzíra | auzíran |

187. Strong verbs of the $-\bar{\imath}$ and the $-u \bar{\imath}$ classes regularly
took their old conditional directly from the Latin pluperfect: fēcĕram $>$ fẹira, füĕram $>$ fọra, vīděram $>$ vira; habüĕram *á $\beta$ wëram $(\S 16,2)>$ ágra, pŏtüĕram $>$ pogra, vŏlüĕram $>$ volgra, sapŭĕram > sáubra sáupra ( $\S 65, \mathrm{P}, 3$ ). Of course the Latin pluperfect, and therefore the Provençal conditional, followed the shift of the perfect if it changed from one class to another: vēnī $>^{*} v e \overline{n u} \bar{\imath}$, hence * vēnüĕram $>$ vẹngra. The inflection is as follows: -

| fọra | forám | ágra | agrám |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fọras | forátz forás | ágras | agrátz agrás |
| fọra | fọran | ágra | ágran |

1. Faire has féra (cf. feron) beside feira.
2. For sáupra, cf. § $148,(2)$, and $\S 184,(4), \mathrm{I}$, and § 192.
3. Devér has beside dégra a form déura, evidently influenced by the new conditional, deuria.
4. Páisser, plazér have beside págra, plágra the forms paisséra, plazéra.
5. Strong verbs of the $-s \bar{i}$ class regularly form their old conditional on the same plan as the 3 d pers. pl. of the preterit (§ 183 ): (dīxĕram) díra, cf. díron; (*prēsĕram) prẹira, cf. prẹiron; (arsĕram) arsẹra, cf. arsęron.
6. It will be noted that in all verbs, weak and strong, the old conditional may be constructed from the $3^{d}$ pers. pl. of the preterit by changing -on to -a .

## Imperfect Subjunctive.

190. The Provençal imperfect subjunctive came from the Latin pluperfect subjunctive, which in Vulgar Latin assumed the functions of the imperfect and generally displaced it, its own place having been taken by a compound form: see § 141 , (2).
191. For weak verbs the basis was the contracted form of the first and fourth conjugations (amāssem<amāvissem, audīssem<audīvǐssem); weak verbs of third conjugation had a similar analogical form (* vēndęsem). First conjugation verbs substituted e for á, as in the perfect and the old conditional: § ${ }^{7} 75,(4) ;$ § 186 . The Provençal types are: ames, vendes, auzís. The inflection is:

| amęs | amessem | auzís | auzissem |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| amẹsses | amessetz -es | auzísses | auzissetz-ẹs |
| amęs | amęssen -on -0 | auzís | auzíssen -on -o |

192. Strong verbs regularly made their imperfect directly from the Vulgar Latin form of the pluperfect: fecissem $>$ fezes, fŭŭssem * fŭssem $>$ fọs, vidǐssem $>$ vezẹ, venĭssem ${ }^{*}$ venuǐssem $>$ vengues; dixǐssem $>$ dissẹs, ${ }^{*}$ pre $(n)$ sǐssem $>$ prezẹ; habǔ̆ssem $>$ aguẹ, potǔ̌ssem $>$ poguẹs, volǔ̌ssem $>$ volguẹs, sapǔ̌ssem $>$ saubes saupes $(\S 65, \mathrm{P}, 3)$. The inflection is: -

| fos | fossem | agues | aguessem, acsẹ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fọsses | fossẹtz -es | aguẹsses | aguessẹtz-es, acsẹtz-es |
| fọ | fọssen -on -o | aguẹs | aguẹssen -on -o |

1. The syncopated forms in the ist and 2 d pers. pl. are common to the $-u \overline{~ c l a s s: ~ d e c s e ́ m, ~ i a c s e ́ m, ~ p o c s e ́ m, ~ s a u p s e ́ m . ~}$
2. In the 3 d pers. pl. $-a n$ sometimes takes the place of - en or $-o n$ : mezéssan, saubéssan. This ending is doubtless borrowed from the present subjunctive and the old conditional.
3. Vezér has vis beside vezés. From faire we find in the 3d pers. pl. fésson.
4. Metre has mezés, due, no doubt, to the analogy of mes and of prezés.
5. Some dialects have an ending -a, -as, -a , -ám, -átz, an, borrowed from the present subjunctive and the old conditional, but added to the stem of the imperfect subjunctive: chantẹssa, vendessa, floríssa; fọssa.

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From ū: 38. - Unaccented: 4I;
see Vowels.
$\mathrm{u}<1$ : see $1>\mathrm{u}$.
u: 40, (2) ; 55, W ; 72.
ue: 37 .
uebre: 23,3 .
$U_{g o}:$ 10I, (3), $\mathbf{r}$.
uis: 33, 2.
umplir: 44, I.
un; 117; 136, (29).
Unaccented Vowels: see Vowels.
uo < $<$ : 37 .
uó>o: 40, I ; 55, W.
ира: 33, 2 .
-us -onem; 96, 2.
$-u t$ in Past Participle: 148.
uu $>\mathrm{u}: 55$, W.
$\mathrm{v}>\beta$; $55, \mathrm{~V}$.
vair: 73, Ry, I .
vaire: $5 \mathbf{1}, 4$.
vas: 42, I .
vaus: 42, 1 .
vecvos: 156, 2.
vei: 160.
vendanha: 25, 2, (e).
Verbs: see Conjugation.
verin: $25,2,(e) ; 87, \mathrm{n}+\mathrm{n}$.
veus: $156,2$.
veuva: 72, Dw, I .
vezer: 145; 148, (2), (3) ; 150; 156,

2; 160; 162, (30); 170; 171, 173, (3), (4) ; 179; 182, (3) ; 182, (3), 1; 187; 192; 192, 3.
vezoa: $72, \mathrm{Dw}, \mathrm{I}$.
vianda: 28, $6 ; 87, \beta$.
viatz: $87, \beta$; 108.
vint: 27.
Vocative: 91, (2).
voig: 23,$3 ; 49,(1) ; 80, C^{\prime}$ t.
volentiers: 46, 1 .
voler; 137, (1) ; 148, (2) ; 159, (2); $160 ; 162,(31) .167,2 ; 177$, (1); 180; 181, (1) ; 184, (3) ; 187; 192.
volon: 28, 7 .
Vowels:-Accented : 23-39; see a, e, ę, i, ọ, q, ü. - Greek : 22. Latin: 20-22. - Prefixed to $s+$ cons.: 62, (3). - Provençal : 8-9. - Unaccented : 40-53. Final Syllable: 51-53; learned words, 53 ; supporting vowel, 52. Initial

Syllable: 41-44; analogy, 42; dialect, 44 ; false etymology, 43 . Intertonic Syllable: 45-46; analogy, 46. Penult: 47-50; learned words, 50 ; Provençal, 48 ; vowel kept, 49; Vulgar Latin, 47.
vuech: 23, 3; 49, (1) ; 80, C't.
vuelc: 37,$2 ; 181,(1)$.
Vulgar Latin : 14.
$\mathrm{w}: 55, \mathrm{~W} ; 56, \mathrm{~W} ; 62,(2) ; 72, \beta w$; see u.
x : 55, X.
$\mathrm{y}<\mathrm{j}: 55 ; 6 \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{Y} ; 65, \mathrm{Y} ; 68, \mathrm{Y} 1$.
$y<e, i:$ see e,
$\mathrm{y}<\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{g}: 55 ; 65, \mathrm{G}, \mathrm{Y} ; 68, \mathrm{C}^{\prime} 1$; $70, \mathrm{C}^{\prime} \mathrm{r}$, Gr, Yr.
$z: 57, Z ; 61, Y ; 65, \mathrm{Y}$.





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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ See E. Bourciez, les Mots espagnols comparés aux mots gascons.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ See C. Chabaneau, la Langue et la littérature du Limousin, in the Revue des langues romanes, $\mathrm{XXXV}, 379$.
    ${ }^{2}$ See G. Paris, Origines de la poésie lyrique en France au moyen âge.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ This $h$ (coming from $f$ ) is peculiar to Gascon; the other dialects have no $h$.
    ${ }^{2} G, b, d$ are sounded $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}$ only at the end of a word or before a final s.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1} G, b, d$ are sounded $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}$ only at the end of a word or before a final s .
    ${ }^{2} \mathrm{Rr}$ is generally distinguished from r , but there are a few examples of their confusion in rhyme.
    ${ }^{3}$ Ts is usually written $c$ at the beginning of a word, $z$ or $t z$ at the end.
    ${ }^{4} G$ has the sound of tš only at the end of a word or combined with final $\boldsymbol{z}$.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. French.

[^5]:    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Spanish.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ For some exceptions see Rom., XXXII, 59y ; P. Marchot, Phon., p. 9.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ There is no diphthong in the preterit ending -ec: cazec, etc.
    ${ }^{2}$ This view is a modification of the theory developed by C. Voretzsch in his admirable treatise, Zur Geschichte der Diphthongierung im Altprovenzalischen, Halle, 1900. That $e$ is not affected by an i in the following syllable is shown by such words as emperi, evangeli, salteri, which must have been adopted fairly early. The same thing is true of $0:$ apostoli, oli, etc.
    ${ }^{3}$ The diphthong of o occurs, however, in this text, v. 203, in uel < rculi.
    ${ }^{4}$ Derrier (derer, dereer), beside dereire, is manifestly due to the influence of primier. To the influence of the same ending -ier, as in carr(i)eira, is to be ascribed the diphthong in cad(i)eira<cathĕdra.
    ${ }^{5}$ The things just said of e are true of $o$ : there is no breaking before $u<1$ (tout $=$ tolt $)$ nor before ts, $\mathrm{dz}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}$ ( $n ð$ cet $>$ notz, * noptias $>$ nossas ).

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ The conditions are not quite the same as for e: an e does not break before a labial (neps) nor before $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ (venha). Breaking before g and k seems more general for $o$ than for $e$.
    ${ }^{2}$ So the second person forms cuebres, uebres, uefres, and the third person forms cuebre, uebre, uefre; cf. cobron, obri, etc.

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ For a discussion of the date, see K. Nyrop, Grammaire historique de la langue française (Copenhagen, 1899-1903), I, § 187.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the accent, see § 16, 1.
    ${ }^{2}$ Spelled drictus: see Schuchardt, Vocalismus des Vulgärlateins, II, 422.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ The period of the fall of the intertonic vowel covers, in part, the period of the voicing of intervocalic surds (§65) ; sometimes the vowel fell too soon for the surd

[^12]:    to be voiced, sometimes it did not. The relation of the fall of unstressed vowels to the development of intervocalic consonants, in French, has been examined by L. Clédat in the Revue de philologie française, in a series of articles beginning XVII, 122. Cf. P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 84-90.

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ Domnus may be the older form.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ The change of accent, in this verb and others, was due to the analogy of the first and fourth conjugations (canteron, sentíron) and to the influence of the second person plural (dissetz).

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ In most of the modern dialects (but not in Gascony and lower Languedoc) this a has become o: rosa $>$ roso. But in the Limousin dialects and some others - as $>$ -a: rosas > rosa.

[^16]:    ${ }^{1}$ The $\operatorname{tg}$ in this word is probably due to the influence of iutiar $<j \bar{u} d$ ĩcäre.
    ${ }^{2}$ The forms with $r$ may be due to dissimilation or to the influence of clergue.

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ Compare, in English, the $c$ of $c 00$ and the $k$ of key.
    ${ }^{2}$ Compare the old-fashioned pronunciation of words like card, kind.

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ For final $-c i,-g i$ in plurals, see § 92, (2).
    ${ }^{2}$ Before this, frīgzidus had become frigdus in Italy and Gaul.

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ It is natural to suppose that the $n$, in falling, nasalized the vowel; but no trace of this nasality remains.

[^20]:    ${ }^{1}$ Fes, nut, which quite supplanted the regular forms, perhaps show the influence of res, mut.

[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ By analogy of such double forms, n is sometimes added to a few words ending in a vowel: füit $>$ fo fon, prō>propron.

[^22]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. § 63, (4).

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ Also auvir, probably a local development of auir or auzir ; and aurir, doubtless from auzir in a dialect that confuses r and z . See $\mathrm{R}, \mathbf{2}$ and $\mathrm{S}, \mathbf{2}$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. § 63, (3).
    ${ }^{3}$ The i from $\delta$ fuses with the preceding i .
    *Trachor has been influenced by trach, past participle of traire.

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ Intervocalic c and g have been studied by H. Sabersky, Zur provenzalischen Lautlehre, 1888, pp. 8-19.
    ${ }^{2}$ Mica micha are from ${ }^{*} m \bar{i} c c a=m i ̄ c a+c \bar{c} c c u m$.

[^25]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the reduction of $a u$ to $a$ see § 41 .
    ${ }^{2}$ Clerc is from * clërcum, which must have existed contemporaneously with clĕrăcum.

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ Magis was probably reduced to mais in Vulgar Latin.
    ${ }^{2}$ Legir may have been reconstructed on the basis of leg <leggit.

[^27]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the groups ending in y, cf. L. J. Juroszek, Ein Beitrag zur Geschichte der jotazierten Konsonanten in Frankreich, in Zs., XXVII, 550 ff . The groups ending in y and those containing c or g have been studied by H. Sabersky, Zur provenzalischen Lautlehre, 1888.
    ${ }^{2} \mathrm{~S}$ is generally written $s s$ between vowels, to distinguish it from $s=z$.

[^28]:    ${ }^{1}$ Most of the words in this category are semi-learned: cf. fabla and faula. See § 55, B.
    ${ }^{2}$ See § 47, (2).

[^29]:    ${ }^{1}$ See § 47, (2).
    ${ }^{2}$ We find also faur: cf. § 52, (1), 1.
    ${ }^{3}$ Sozer is from sǒcĕrum: cf. § 49, (1).

[^30]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the vowel of ner nier, see § 25, 1, (e).
    ${ }^{2}$ Enteir, neir seem to have lost final e under the influence of numerous adjectives in-er-ier-ieir <-arium.
    ${ }^{3}$ In the modern dialects the d is probably commoner than it was in the old literary language; it occurs in Bordeaux, Languedoc, and Provence.

[^31]:    ${ }^{1}$ Ratie is perhaps French.
    ${ }^{2}$ After o , the u disappears.

[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ Glai is due perhaps to the analogy of ney $(\S 65, \beta, \dot{3})$, perhaps to such double forms as fatz fai $=$ facit.
    ${ }^{2}$ Seti (pronounced with two syllables) seems to be an improperly constructed post-verbal noun from assetiar.

[^33]:    ${ }^{1}$ Apparently maniar, escomeniar developed in the region where $g$ became $y$ before a: cf. § 65, G, (1).

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ The r remained palatal long enough to cause breaking: cf. $\$ 30,37$.

[^35]:    ${ }^{1}$ These sounds lost their palatal quality too early to cause breaking: cf. §§ 30,37 . Cf. Einf., § $133^{\circ}$
    ${ }^{2}$ Palaitz, however, is used by Marcabru, A. Daniel, and P. Vidal. Poizon occurs in Flamenca and in modern Limousin (beside pozon), raizo is found in the Boeci and other texts.

[^36]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. § 49, (3).

[^37]:    ${ }^{1}$ The $i$ in weich seems to be merely graphic.

[^38]:    ${ }^{1}$ The $i$ in voig seems to be merely graphic.

[^39]:    ${ }^{1}$ The phenomena of dissimilation have been well classified by M. Grammont in La dissimilation consonantique dans les langues indo-européennes et dans les langues romanes, 1895. For metathesis, see Zs., XXVIII, x.

[^40]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cato uses fructi.
    ${ }^{2}$ The process began in classic Latin: materies materia, etc.

[^41]:    ${ }^{1}$ See § 89 , $\mathbf{r}$.
    ${ }^{2}$ See § 47, (3).

[^42]:    ${ }^{1}$ See § 16 , 1 .
    See § 52, ( 1 ), I .

[^43]:    ${ }^{1}$ Perhaps from a fusion of plüs and pluriōres =plüres. Cf. Fr.

[^44]:    ${ }^{1}$ These forms existed as early as the rst century of our era. See $Z s$., XXVI, 600, 619. Ejus, ei may have had some influence.
    ${ }^{2}$ See § 67, (2).
    ${ }^{3}$ § 45 .
    ${ }^{4} 874$, (2).

[^45]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 104.
    ${ }^{2}$ See Suchier in Grundriss, I, p. 627.
    s Cf. A. von Elsner, Ueber Form und Verwendung des Personalpronomens im Altprovenzalischen, 1886.

[^46]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Thomas in Rom., XII, 334 ; Meyer-Lübke in Gram., II, page ro4. For a different explanation, see Ascoli in Archivio glottologico italiano, XV, 314, 396.

[^47]:    ${ }^{1}$ For a different explanation of mia, see Gram., I, pp. 246-248; also Horning in Zs., XXV, 341.

[^48]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cels shows the influence of masculine nouns and adjectives.
    ${ }^{2}$ Aquel has also aquilli. Cilha is evidently a combination of cilh and celha.

[^49]:    ${ }^{1}$ Aquel has also aqueli.
    ${ }^{2}$ Aquel has also aquelz and aquelses.

[^50]:    ${ }^{1}$ See G. Rydberg, Le développement de facere dans les langues romanes, 1893.
    ${ }^{2}$ See A. Zimmermann in Zs., XXV, 735 .
    ${ }^{3}$ See C. C. Rice in Publications of the Modern Language Association of America, XIX, 217.
    ${ }^{4}$ Cf. §I38.
    ${ }^{5}$ Cf. §72, Sw.
    ${ }^{6}$ According to Raimon Vidal, a 13th century grammarian, tenir is French.

[^51]:    ${ }^{1}$ Esvanuir seems to come from the perfect, evanuz̄.
    ${ }^{2}$ Enfolhetir shows the influence of follet.
    ${ }^{8}$ See K. Sittl in Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik, I, 465

[^52]:    ${ }^{1}$ For ai estat we sometimes find soi agutz. The confusion arises perhaps from the use of both es and $a$ in the sense of 'there is': hence es estat $=a$ agut; and by a mixture of the two, es agut. Cf. L. Gauchat, Sono avuto, in Scritti vari di filologia (dedicated to E. Monaci), 1901, p. 6r.

[^53]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. P. Thielmann, Archiv fïr lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik, II, 48 and 157 .

[^54]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the accented vowels in these forms, see §§ 167, 168.
    ${ }^{2}$ See § 168.

[^55]:    ${ }^{1}$ Also, by analogy, iassér.
    ${ }^{2}$ Raimon Vidal says that crei, vei are the proper forms for the ist pers. sg. of the pres. indicative.

[^56]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to Raimon Vidal, trac is the only correct form.

[^57]:    ${ }^{1}$ Volemus occurs repeatedly in 7th century Latin.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. O. Schmidt, Ueber die Endungen des Prasens im Altprovenzalischen, 1887.

[^58]:    ${ }^{1}$ The loss of $-s$ is not confined to the Provençal territory: it occurs aiso in western France, Catalonia, and the Engadine.

[^59]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{Cf}$. the reduction of habebam to $a \beta e a$ : § 153 .
    ${ }^{2}$ Tenér tenir really belongs to the second conjugation.

[^60]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to Raimon Vidal, this is the regular ending of the 3 d pers. sg. of the fourth conjugation.
    ${ }^{2}$ In nasquec the $u i$ ending occurs twice.
    ${ }^{3}$ Beside parec, coming perhaps from a V. L. * parēvit * parēvuit.

[^61]:    ${ }^{1}$ All verbs in -ndẽre took the perfect in -sĩ: ascos, aucis, pris, respos, etc. Lĕgĕre took *lëxī>leis through the analogy of the p. p. lëctum. So fingĕre took * $f \ddot{x} x \overline{\text { in }}>$ feis through fĭctum; frangĕre, pingĕre, tangĕre did likewise (frais, peis, tais); and in Provençal cénher <cïngěre, esténher <exstĩnguëre, plánher $<$ plangěre followed the example of these (ceis, esteis, plais): hence all verbs in -nher have the preterit in $-s$.
    ${ }^{2}$ See Zs., XXVIII, 97.
    ${ }^{3}$ Gram., II, p. 357.

[^62]:    ${ }^{1}$ Těnuī and vēñ̄ influenced each other.

[^63]:    ${ }^{1}$ So bıbuit $>$ bec, debuit $>$ dec.
    ${ }^{2}$ So cognōvit $>$ conoc, mōvit $>$ moc.
    ${ }^{\text {s }}$ So * cơcuit $>$ coc, jacuit $>$ iac, * nascuit $>$ nasc, ${ }^{\text {* pa }}$ (s)cuit $>$ pac, placuit $>$ plac, tacuit $>$ tac, ${ }^{*}$ tescuit $>$ tesc, ${ }^{*}$ vĩncuit $>$ venc, ${ }^{*}$ vīscuit $>$ visc.
    ${ }^{4}$ So caluit $>$ calc, ${ }^{*}$ trluit $>$ tolc, volluit $>$ volc.
    ${ }^{5}$ So * vènuit $>$ venc.
    ${ }^{6}$ So crïpuit $>$ ereup, recipuit $>$ receup.

